

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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GREATER EMPHASIS ON CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

THIS journal opens the new school year with plans for increased emphasis on problems of curriculum and instruction. Analysis of issues of the *School Review* at intervals throughout the period of almost half a century since it began publication shows that it has always given much space to these problems, but the times call for greater stress on them. The added emphasis begins in the current issue with the articles by William J. Haggerty and Donald F. Mulvihill on "Current Issues in General Education" and "Articulation of Business Subjects in High Schools and Colleges in Illinois." Haggerty in his article reports the diverse opinions of what constitutes general education and himself undertakes a synthesis. Other articles illustrative of the increased emphasis which will appear in early issues are "Seventy-one Courses in Consumption," by Henry Harap; "Realistic Teaching of Government and How To Get It," by Paul H. Hanus; "Core-Curriculum Developments in California," by Gordon N. Mackenzie; "Schedules of Junior High School Pupils," by Percival W. Hutson and Joseph C. Keifer; and "An Integrative Approach to the Social-cultural Aspects of Language," by Walter V. Kaulfers.

The greater stress on problems of curriculum and instruction will be accomplished without relinquishing any of the usual features of

the *School Review*. Regular readers will recognize these features as articles on all important aspects of secondary-school keeping; educational news and editorial comment; "Here and There among the High Schools" (brief reports of innovations in schools throughout the nation); lists of references selected and annotated by experts; discriminating reviews by specialists of new books on education and textbooks for secondary schools; and lists of current publications received, including practically all educational books and bulletins.

The *School Review* also begins the publishing year in new dress, which, in harmony with a trend of the arts, is a bit brighter than formerly. We believe that the increased emphasis and the new dress will prove acceptable to our readers.

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

IN THIS regular feature for the current issue are epitomized the reports of innovations that have been instituted in five schools in four widely scattered states and the District of Columbia. Salient aspects of secondary education are represented, including curriculum and staff, the extra-curriculum, discipline, and follow-up study of graduates.

A seminar for the study of the local school's problems The Boise (Idaho) High School, of which Zed L. Foy is principal, has afforded a promising variant from the usual periodical professional teachers' meeting. At the opening of the past school year a mimeographed "Outline of Faculty Co-operation and Study" was distributed to all members of the staff. This outline described a plan of work of "faculty seminars" for the discussion and study of problems as they are directly related to Boise High School. The plan assumed that all members of the faculty would be present and would participate and contribute. Suggested fields for study were listed in the outline, the fields being "Curriculum and Course of Study," "Administrative Procedures," "Student Activities," "Junior and Senior High School Integration," and "Personnel Problems." Under the name of each field questions were asked to indicate the directions in which discussion and inquiry might go. Accompanying the outline was a form on which each teacher was asked to indicate his preference of seminar group. There was opportunity on the form

also for the teachers to indicate the field of "another seminar" in which they might be more interested than the subjects listed. On the basis of the preferences reported, the groups were organized and conducted.

A service club in a Among honors awarded to pupils at Soldan High School in St. Louis, of which Herbert P. Stellwagen is principal, is membership in the Soldan Service Club—an honor available to pupils who are selected from among those who have an average of "G" or better in their work and who have the approval of their advisers for such selection. Approximately two hundred pupils are enrolled in the club each semester. Pupils must be willing to give at least one period each day to service in the general welfare of the school. The "Torchbearers," Soldan chapter of the National Honor Society, as one of its lines of activity, acts as a "super-service club" charged with management of the Service Club and plans and supervises the many lines of work assigned to members of the Service Club. Types of service rendered by the club include the following: two members in each class period perform certain duties for the principal's office; four or five members assist during each period in the library, issuing or shelving books; one girl is assigned to the doctor's office to assist the doctor and nurse; during lunch periods several members are stationed at certain places to assist in maintaining order in the lines. One of the semiannual activities is the giving of a party to all pupils new to the school. It is Principal Stellwagen's opinion that the Service Club means much to the school in the way of assistance in management and in developing the spirit of service in the school.

A self-reliant group with In the Rye (New York) High School, of which A. V. MacCullough is supervising principal, there is what is known as the Self-Reliant Group, which is open to all pupils of the school without scholastic criterion for membership. The only scholastic requirement is that each applicant for membership or each member do the best work of which he is capable even though ordinary standards of achievement may not be met. The pupil's own written application for membership, his first act in becoming a

member, is a self-inventory of his qualifications to meet the aims of the group. He rates himself as loyal, dependable, friendly, courteous, prompt, honest, ambitious, and co-operative in all his connections with the school. The application must be approved by the teachers with whom his school contacts are made, as well as by the pupil members of the group. Once the pupil is admitted to the group, his membership gives him the complete freedom of those parts of the building and campus of twenty-seven acres to which pupils are admitted when not meeting assignments.

Two follow-up studies of high-school graduates A study made of pupils graduated during the last fifteen years from Central High School in Kalamazoo, Michigan, showed that 63.8 per cent had not attended college. The percentage for the last six years is 72. These percentages seem especially remarkable in view of the presence in the community of two higher institutions, namely, an independent college and a state teachers' college. The condition has prompted the Chamber of Commerce to set up a steering committee to work with the school authorities in developing an adequate offering in the school and helpful relationships with the industries of the city. The first four steps have been the following: a "distributive occupational" program under the provisions of the Michigan State Plan for Vocational Education, the offering of an apprenticeship-training program, establishment of a placement bureau for pupils, and a complete vocational survey to disclose the demands of modern business. According to Superintendent Loy Norrix, the survey is designed to aid the schools in arranging a curriculum that will prepare young men and women for work which they may find to do in Kalamazoo.

The Woodrow Wilson High School in Washington, D.C., is also undertaking a follow-up study of its graduates. This school has the advantage of most schools in making such a study because its first classes were graduated in February and June, 1937. Norman J. Nelson, principal of the school, states that only four individuals, or 1.3 per cent of the 318 graduates, have not been located. Inquiries by questionnaire and otherwise are undertaking to ascertain how well the school is fitting its graduates for life after school—scholastically, vocationally, and socially.

TEACHER DEMAND CATCHING UP WITH SUPPLY

PERIODICALLY, R. H. Eliassen, of Bethany College, and Earl W. Anderson, of the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, summarize the investigations of teacher supply and demand. They have done so again recently for investigations reported during 1937 and have published their summary in the *Educational Research Bulletin*. Following are portions of the digest that indicate the general trend in supply and demand.

In general, the situation is pictured as progressively improving during the past several years. The demand for elementary-school teachers, especially for rural schools, was stronger than for those in high school. Under-supply was reported in many sections of the country in the elementary schools and in the special fields, such as home economics, music, industrial arts, vocational agriculture, commercial teaching, and art. In the states of the Great Plains definite shortages were reported in most fields. Thus Schmidt of the University of North Dakota, reporting in the spring of 1937, stated, "Our list of candidates has not been so thoroughly exhausted in many years as it was last fall." Moritz from the University of Nebraska wrote similarly: "Before September 1, 1937, the supply of available teachers was practically exhausted, and the record shows the per cent of placement is highest on record." He reported a shortage of teachers in almost every field. In the 174 institutions reporting to Umstattd the percentage of placements increased from 65 per cent in 1934-35 to 76 per cent in 1935-36. Increases in calls and placements were noted in reports from the University of Michigan, from Teachers College, Columbia University, from Ohio State University, from the Indiana State Teachers College, and from the Mankato, Minnesota, State Teachers College.

The various percentages of placement were: 76 per cent for the country at large, for the state normal schools of New York, and for the Indiana State Teachers College; 74 per cent for Ohio State University; almost 100 per cent for the Universities of Nebraska and North Dakota; and 88 per cent for the State Teachers College of Mankato, Minnesota. Other reports do not indicate the exact percentages of placement, although in every case improvement was evident.

Several writers indicated that improvement of general economic conditions had much to do with the increased opportunities for teachers.

OBSERVATIONS ON TEACHING HOW TO STUDY

THE problem of developing in youth effective techniques of study appears to be receiving increased attention from teachers and school heads. Among educators sharing in the systematization of instruction in these techniques is Professor Francis F. Powers, of the

University of Washington. A recent issue of the *College of Education Record* of that institution reports some "conclusions" from Professor Powers' endeavors to encourage development of how-to-study techniques. We quote almost in full these conclusions, together with the author's statement introducing them. Conclusions of this sort possess some special timeliness at the opening of a new school year.

He who writes on the title "How To Study" can certainly lay no claim to novelty of topic. But he who can truthfully be said to have invented or discovered a device to aid student studying, in however small a way, merits attention in proportion to the magnitude of his discovery. For the fact of the case is that, in spite of the length of time that there has been interest in, and attention to, teaching pupils to study, one of the most common criticisms made of our schools, both public and private, is that they do not give pupils a general technique of study. Freshmen in universities, for example, soon begin to make this complaint when they are thrown upon their own initiative in work which requires an effective study technique.

When one examines the number of excellent texts on the market which devote space to study and reading problems, it is a little difficult to understand why students should still complain of lack of training in this vital academic and social function. There are many such books. One reason, of course, could be that schools may not be adopting and using these books which are actually available. Another possible reason is that even where such books are in use they are not functionally effective. In this latter connection it must be admitted that some of the how-to-study texts available are incorrectly pitched as to level and are too academic in treatment.

The writer has been interested for a number of years in doing remedial study and reading work at both the college and high-school level. As a result of this work he has come to certain conclusions based on practical experience. These conclusions are herewith proffered for such value as they may have for others interested in the same line of work.

1. *Confusion frequently exists in the mind of the teacher as to whether the difficulty of the student in attacking his work rests upon a physiological or a motivation basis.* In other words, is the student combating an organic difficulty such as poor sight, hearing, etc., or is he simply not interested in his work? Both kinds of problems, of course, exist in generous numbers. But it is almost worse than useless to be trying to find the organic difficulty of a pupil who is simply bored to death! Conversely, it is equally futile to attempt to secure better work by peppering up some unfortunate who is attempting to compensate for an organic disability.

2. *Students profit to a very limited extent from long abstract discussions of study technique.* The lower the grade, the more likely this is to be the case. On the other hand, pupils are much taken by anything which catches their eye quickly

and which seems to aid them in their study. This fact was borne in forcibly on the writer in the course of some work with University of Washington Freshmen in teaching them how to study, and in some remedial reading-and-study classes which the writer offered in the same institution. In preparing to talk to a group of university Freshmen on the problem of how to study, the writer prepared a pamphlet. This pamphlet listed the twelve cardinal factors in study, explained the essence of each by a catchy statement, and was illustrated with pointed cartoons touching the student's own life. The students' reactions were distinctly favorable to this approach, and from an initial printing of one thousand the demand grew so quickly that several additional printings were necessary. Student interest seemed to be based, not so much upon any peculiar merit the author's points had, because for the most part these were similar to those in like books, but rather upon the form in which the material was put. . . .

If it is true that the vital principles of how to study can be reduced to a condensed and vivid form, it will be advantageous not only in promoting the students' interest in learning how to study, but it will also have economic value, because the majority of the how-to-study books cost a dollar or more and such abbreviated discussions can be prepared to sell at about five cents per copy when stripped of all excess verbiage. Furthermore, many schools are interested in such an approach because it is inexpensive and relieves the teacher of the problem of organizing the work—a difficult task for some.

3. *Reading and vocabulary difficulties are both intimately related to study disability.* It might be said that for most school subjects reading is the key to study, and vocabulary is the key to reading. Experiments have shown conclusively that the adolescent rarely even approaches his mental potentialities in acquiring vocabulary.

4. *Formal grammar is a valuable adjunct to effective study.* In considering the fourth point the writer confesses his own out-and-out prejudice. If one believes, as most students of general semantics and philology do, that there is a close relationship between linguistic organization and thought-processes, then the value of formal grammar in any how-to-study program becomes apparent. This is true because grammar is the skeleton of language; language itself is the medium of thought. Those who teach in institutions of higher learning have been noticing for the last several years the high price which many students are paying in study efficiency for lack of aptitude in grammar!

5. *Finally, there is a strong disciplinary element in a correct study technique.* No matter how beautifully any study is motivated, it is virtually impossible to have all of the students interested all of the time. It is at this point that discipline, or self-discipline, enters. In fact, one of the secrets of a correct study technique is the knowledge of the psychological mechanisms by which we become negatively adapted to distractions or temptations to cease working.

So far as actual how-to-study programs in the high school go, attention to about three things is all that is necessary. First, definite provision should be

made that all students are trained in the technique of study. This should be done both in general and special classes. Second, vocabulary and reading training should probably be continued throughout the high-school level. It is not done at the present time in most places, but there is a growing suspicion that it should be. Third, so-called "progressive" and "activity" education should not be allowed to run wild at the expense of the pupil self-discipline necessary to a real study technique. It is a noteworthy fact that in spite of the outstanding personal benefits which some of our "progressive" education seems to possess, one of the weaknesses of its educational products is the comparative inability to study well.

RECENT JUNIOR-COLLEGE LEGISLATION IN CALIFORNIA

IT is rather generally known that California was the first state to enact legislation authorizing provision of junior-college work, its first law on the subject having been passed in 1907. Many additions and changes have been made in the law since that date. The successive modifications are carefully assembled in charts and summarized in an article in the *Sierra Educational News* by Guy Lincoln Smith, assistant supervisor of attendance in the Los Angeles City Schools. Assuming that the interest of our readers will be chiefly in current provisions, we quote portions of the article dealing with the legislation of 1937. Among provisions of the new law reflecting the broadening conception of function and significance of the junior college are those relating to extensions of the curriculum, authorization of programs in adult education, and the recognition of the six-four-four plan of organization.

A new epoch of the junior-college movement was ushered in by the 1937 legislature. The state gave legal entity to the four-year junior college, made up of Grades XI-XIV, inclusive. The separate departmental and district statutory provisions of past years were combined into one, merging all provisions relating to junior colleges under the caption of one act. The type of work provided includes preparation for admission to the upper division of higher institutions, vocational, industrial, and *such other courses of instruction as deemed necessary to provide for civic and liberal education of the citizens of the community.*

Junior colleges may be of two types, namely, the two-year type, including Grades XIII and XIV only, or the four-year type, including Grades XI-XIV, inclusive. Organization can be either on the departmental or the district basis. The departmental or district control remains the same; i.e., the high-school board or junior-college board, with an exception in cases of joint-union districts.

Requirements for organization have been changed. The minimum assessed

valuation is at least \$5,000,000. There must also be an approval of the State Board of Education. Two methods of organization are provided. The two-year type junior college requires a vote of the governing board and approval of the State Department of Education. The four-year type requires a resolution by the governing board of the district, approval of the State Board of Education, and approval by the state superintendent of public instruction.

Financing has taken material departures. Four-year junior colleges are to be financed in the same manner and from the same funds as provided for the financing of the two-year junior colleges. However, the Junior College Tuition Fund does not apply to the eleventh and twelfth grades. Major sections relating to financing high schools were amended by adding "or junior college" to [certain] sections . . . of the School Code. Special adult and evening junior-college classes were brought legally under the financial setup by amending [two of these] sections. . . .

The maximum rate per \$100 of assessed valuation for separate junior-college districts was reduced from 50 cents to 35 cents. Separate high-school districts, the boundaries of which are not coterminous with elementary-school districts, may have a maximum rate of \$1 per \$100 of assessed valuation for combined high-school and junior-college purposes. Unified school districts consisting of elementary, high school, and junior college may have an over-all maximum rate of \$1.75 per \$100 assessed valuation. Unified districts composed of kindergarten, elementary, high school, and junior college may have a maximum rate of \$1.85 per \$100 assessed valuation. Coterminous high-school and junior-college districts may have a maximum combined tax rate not exceeding \$1.10 per \$100 assessed valuation.

The 1937 financial measures give flexibility to the entire state educational system. The provisions give a method whereby the governing boards may make a more elastic interpretation to meet local conditions. The combined taxation measures empower the governing board by written resolution to use the funds from the undistributed reserve as it sees fit and thereby meet emergencies. . . .

A broadened community horizon and purpose, giving character and individuality to the junior college, was envisaged by the new statutory provisions. The new section 3.360 of the School Code provides that "each junior college shall provide for the education of pupils in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades, and for the education of such adults and minors as may properly be admitted but who are not classifiable by grade."

By new School Code section 3.817 it is provided that "special day and evening junior-college classes may be established by the governing board of any district maintaining a junior college for the admission of adults and of such minors as may be able more advantageously to attend such special classes than regular junior-college classes."

The new statutory provisions provide that if a junior college is maintained within a high-school district, the junior high school may include Grades VII-X,

inclusive. The junior college will then include Grades XI through XIV. The elementary span is thus limited to six years. The span of the junior high school and the junior college are both extended. This is the first time the six-four-four plan has been given legal recognition in the state of California. . . .

This new legislation leads the junior college into a new era. The newly created institution fulfils the modern national tendencies to increase the holding power of educational institutions. It adds another link in that continuous chain of evolutionary education in and for a changing democracy.

AN EDUCATIONAL RADIO SCRIPT EXCHANGE

UNDER the direction of William D. Boutwell, chief of the editorial division, the United States Office of Education has done more to develop educational broadcasting and to stimulate interest in such broadcasting than any other agency, public or private. An outgrowth of the radio programs fostered by the Office of Education is the Radio Script Exchange. A report from the Office indicates that in the short period of less than two years the exchange has supplied more than 3,000 educational groups with more than 130,000 copies of radio scripts on many educational subjects.

A recent edition of the Script Catalogue lists sixteen complete radio series and a number of miscellaneous scripts available to educational institutions. More than 1,200 scripts have been conserved, or, as the statement from the Office puts it, "saved from sudden death," since ordinarily scripts are used but once over the air. Among the scripts available are series on history, on science and industry, on safety education, on vocational guidance, and in music appreciation. While educational groups in all sections of the country have used these scripts in broadcasting over local stations, many schools and colleges have used them for production of "mock" broadcasts over public-address systems, before assemblies, and from central control-rooms to classrooms throughout the school building.

HIGH-SCHOOL ITEMS FROM THE NATION'S LARGEST CITY SYSTEM

READERS of the *New York Sun* are kept in touch, through its educational page, with news of the schools, particularly of the schools of New York City. Scanners of the page through the summer months may have noted, among others, the following items.

The *Sun* reported that steps were being taken toward awarding the contract for the construction of the Central High School of Needle Trades to cost about four and a half million dollars. The new building is planned to house three thousand pupils, is to be located in the heart of the needle-trades district of the city, and, according to the *Sun*, "will be one of the most pretentious buildings ever constructed by the school board."

A new policy announced by the chairman of the board's committee on buildings and sites fixed three thousand sittings as the maximum size of high schools in a building program to extend through the next six years. This maximum is much smaller than that previously operative. At the same time maximums of two thousand and eighteen hundred pupils, respectively, were set for new junior high schools and elementary schools. The policy is the outcome of a drive long conducted by school officials of the city and is in striking contrast with enrolments near the ten-thousand mark in certain older New York high schools. The *School Review* has, from time to time, commented on the dearth of objective evidence in support of any specific maximum enrolment for high schools.

At the annual meeting of the Association of Teachers of Mathematics of the city, it was disclosed that fourteen high schools were experimenting with "a new simplified course in high-school mathematics," better known as "integrated mathematics," which is offered in the first high-school year and includes elements of algebra, plane geometry, solid geometry, and trigonometry. Says the *Sun*, "It was contended that the comprehensive course not only simplifies mathematics but also creates a keener interest on the part of pupils not ordinarily interested in mathematics. They are taught to make use of life and objects around them in the study of mathematics."

The last item to be mentioned here refers to the proposal of the chairman of the board's committee on instructional affairs that an inquiry be made into the organizational situation in the system as it relates to junior high schools, senior high schools, and eight-grade elementary schools. It appears that eighty-one junior high schools are in operation in the city and at the same time no high school with less than four grades, and the inquiry is urged as an aid in coming to a decision on what should be the pattern of organization for the system.

USEFULNESS IN PAPER COVERS

A LONG list of more or less fugitive, but nevertheless useful, publications has come to the editor's desk during late spring and summer months. Reference will be made to some of the more valuable of these documents in paper covers.

An aid for teachers of consumers' education *Consumers' Bookshelf*, a bulletin with the subtitle "A Bibliography of Publications on Commodity Buying and Other Consumer Problems," is for sale for fifteen cents by the Superintendent of Documents in Washington. The bulletin is Publication Number 4 of the Consumers' Counsel Series and was prepared by the Consumers' Counsel Division, Agricultural Adjustment Administration, United States Department of Agriculture, and Consumers' Project, United States Department of Labor. The major divisions under which the annotated references are listed are: "Commodities," "Related Consumer Problems," "Aids for Teachers of Consumer Problems," and "Bibliographies." The commodities are grouped under "Clothing and Textiles," "Foods," "Household Equipment," and "Other Commodities." *Consumers' Bookshelf* is a valuable guide to teachers of courses in consumption and to teachers of other courses desirous of emphasizing consumers' problems.

Guidance through the different school levels The New York State Association of Deans has contributed to the literature on guidance by publishing a symposium of articles on the subject by ten authors under the general title *The Continuity of Guidance—Its Function in Education as Related to the Growth of the Individual*. Distinctive of the publication is the fact that each of the majority of the papers considers the problem for a single school level, and there are papers concerned with the home and the preschool, the elementary grades, the junior high school, the senior high school, the junior college, the college and university, teacher education, and adult education. There are opening and closing papers also, which are titled, respectively, "The Common Principles of Guidance" and "Provocative Questions." Discussion of the type included should help to offset a

tendency toward piecemeal approach to guidance encouraged by the succession of units in our system of schools. The list of authors is a guaranty of substance in the discussion, for it includes such names as Ruth M. Strang, A. Laura McGregor, George M. Wiley, M. Eunice Hilton, Lyman Bryson, and Sarah M. Sturtevant. Copies of this 106-page publication may be secured for fifty cents through Miss Zoraida E. Weeks, Oneida High School, Oneida, New York.

Digest of Wickman's report on teacher attitude toward pupil behavior

The Commonwealth Fund has recently made available in compact form, under the title *Teachers and Behavior Problems*, the gist of E. K. Wickman's *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*, which was first published by that organization just ten years ago. The condensation brings down to 40 pages content which in the original draft extended to almost 250 pages. The study reported has to do with teachers' reports on pupils' behavior, teachers' identification of problem pupils, a comparison of the attitudes of teachers and mental hygienists toward behavior problems, and a discussion of the significance of teachers' attitudes. Single copies of the condensation may be purchased for twenty-five cents from the Commonwealth Fund, 41 East Fifty-seventh Street, New York City. Lots of ten to one hundred (for use in teachers' meetings) are procurable at twenty cents a copy, and lots of one hundred or more copies at fifteen cents apiece.

Help for principals reorganizing curriculums

For the Committee on Supervision of Illinois High School Principals' Association, Paul R. Pierce, who is principal of the Wells High School at Chicago, Illinois, has prepared a useful article on *Ways to Better High Schools—The Principal and Curriculum Reorganization*. The article has been published as a bulletin of the University of Illinois (Volume XXXV, No. 67, April 19, 1938) and is issued from the office of the High School Visitor, A. W. Clevenger. Following some preliminary discussion of a modern approach to curriculum improvement and of the problem of the small school, the article outlines and considers four stages of re-

organization, namely, "The Principal's Work with Units of Learning," "Planning a Community School Program," "Putting the Community School Curriculum into Effect," and "Evaluation and Extension of Curriculum Procedures."

Two new government publications on forums It is doubtful that, when the time comes to appraise the contribution to American education of the present Commissioner of Education, J. W. Studebaker, any service he will have rendered will be more highly regarded than his promotion of forums. Everyone knows of his interest in forums and the program of demonstration forums that he initiated. A well-written and attractive report on these demonstrations and a large number of others has been published by the Office of Education under the title *Choosing Our Way*. The authors of the report are Commissioner Studebaker and Chester S. Williams, respectively administrator and assistant administrator of the demonstration forums. The report is sold for thirty-five cents by the Superintendent of Documents in Washington, D.C.

Another bulletin of the Office of Education, which was issued at about the same time as *Choosing Our Way*, is *Forums for Young People* (Bulletin No. 25, 1937). Authorship in this instance is credited to Commissioner Studebaker, Paul H. Sheats (forum counselor), and Chester S. Williams. This publication capitalizes the experience in providing forum discussions for high-school and college students and for young people in the community. In addition to being useful in the conduct of forums for youth, this bulletin should prove helpful to teachers who are trying to perfect the discussion method for classroom use. Copies of *Forums for Young People* may be purchased for fifteen cents from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C.

Latest edition of a selected list of American fiction The staff of the Syracuse (New York) Public Library has recently prepared the nineteenth edition of its *Gold Star List of American Fiction*. The publication includes 590 titles with dates of publication from 1823 to 1938. These titles appear in lists alphabetically arranged by authorship and topically grouped under head-

ings like "Adventure," "Crime," "Country and Village Life," "Famous People," "Sea Stories," "Short Stories," "Stories of Places," and "Historical Novels." The list should be useful to teachers and school librarians. It is sold at twenty-five cents by the Syracuse Public Library.

Instructional materials on co-operation of consumers Minnesota's Department of Education, with offices in St. Paul, has published a *Course of Study on Consumers' Co-operation*. The publication is the work of Miss Dorothy Houston, senior research associate. The author writes in a foreword that "the study of consumers' co-operation as a method of doing business should have its place in any course of study which attempts to present a description and explanation of modern social and economic life and its historical development." The purpose of introducing consideration of consumers' co-operation into the curriculum is said to be two-fold, namely, to provide opportunity "for the study of a method of business which should receive its share of attention along with all other methods" and to present "facts about a movement concerning which citizens and consumers may be called upon to form an opinion, to the end that students may have sufficient information to draw their own conclusions based on knowledge and understanding rather than on emotion and partisan propaganda." The bulletin outlines ten units, of which the following titles are illustrative: "What Consumers' Co-operation Is," "Co-operatives in Your Community," "Swedish Co-operatives Curb Monopoly," and "Evaluation of Consumers' Co-operation." Both the individual units and the bulletin as a whole are well supplied with references to helpful published materials. The content is suggested as suitable for portions of courses in the social studies or as a separate course.

A brief and useful guide to supervised study Professor L. R. Kilzer, of the University of Wyoming, who has before written in the field, has prepared a "Guide to Effective Supervised Study," described as "a sort of workbook" which can be placed in the hands of every teacher and which indicates at a glance just what is being done. In addition to an introduction, the

publication consists of the following parts: "Administrative Technique," "Control Technique," "Operative Technique," "Exercises and Reports," and "Selected and Annotated Bibliography." Copies of the twenty-three-page mimeographed document may be secured at forty cents from the author at Laramie, Wyoming, in care of the University of Wyoming.

WHO'S WHO FOR SEPTEMBER

The authors of articles in the current issue WILLIAM J. HAGGERTY is conducting research studies for North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools at Chicago. DONALD F. MULVIHILL, assistant in English in the Division of Business Rhetoric at the University of Illinois. WILLIS H. REALS, associate professor of education at Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. JAMES A. BOWLIN, principal of the Judson Grove High School, Longview, Texas. PERCIVAL W. HUTSON, associate professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh.

The writers of reviews in the current issue A. J. BRUMBAUGH, professor of education and dean of the College at the University of Chicago. CHARLES W. BOARDMAN, professor of education at the University of Minnesota. FREDERICK S. BREED, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago. EARL T. PLATT, assistant director in charge of Supervised Correspondence Study of the University Extension Division, University of Nebraska. C. T. GRAY, professor of educational psychology at the University of Texas. H. E. BENZ, professor of education at Ohio University, Athens, Ohio. JOHN RUFFI, professor of education at the University of Missouri.

CURRENT ISSUES IN GENERAL EDUCATION

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FORTUNATELY, current discussions of general education, while agreeing at some points, diverge on many aspects of the problem. "General education" is described by Wriston as "an education useful to all who possess it, at all times, and under all circumstances" (4: 1). This kind of definition, making no reference to units in the educational system, to the educational level at which general education is available, to the problem of who should possess a general education, to the content of the curriculum, nor to methods of instruction, has little of a controversial nature in it. In most writings on the subject a twofold meaning attaches to the term "general education." It is employed to describe what goes on in educational institutions which are general in the sense that they serve the entire school population, and it is also employed to convey the idea that there is, or should be, a general, or common, content.

When, however, general education is considered or defined in terms of the period that it occupies, its purposes, its content, or its modes of instruction, conflicting views arise. These are the aspects of the problem that need to be formalized. They relate to institutional organization, to statements of purpose, to admission requirements, and to the catalogue descriptions of offerings and procedures. Here new trends and new ideas are influencing older assumptions and traditions.

THE PERIOD OF GENERAL EDUCATION

Current writers are in fair agreement, with a few striking exceptions, that general education is what is supposed to take place in educational institutions through and including the first two years of college. Where general education begins has not been widely debated. It is, however, a topic of some importance to this discussion,

and it has been the subject of two recent pronouncements. Hutchins would start the program of general education that he advocates "at about the beginning of the junior year in high school" (9: 390). Judd assumes that general education begins with formal schooling when he says: "There is one division of the educational system which is not seriously questioned by anyone as to its purposes and contents—the lowest division, or what is commonly called the 'elementary school.' This school is devoted entirely to general education" (11: 11). The conflict involved in these two statements probably represents different conceptions of what general education is at the lower levels.

This article is concerned with general education at its higher levels—the secondary-school and the college levels. Not long ago reference to "one's having a general education" indicated graduation from high school. That was the place beyond which only a few ventured in their formal schooling. At that time the program of the first two years of college was not general in the sense that it now is when it serves over a half-million students each year.

There is some agreement now that the completion of general education coincides with the end of the second year of college work, and this agreement results in large part from the fact that, of the students who go to college each year, more than half drop out by the end of the second year. Two college presidents have recently announced themselves in disagreement with this conclusion. Wriston and Davidson, who represent other staunch advocates of the four-year liberal program, propose the view that four years is none too long a time for a student to attain a general education. Wriston, criticizing the "modern reformers" who "had made such a point of saving time," states: "If we were to start fresh and I had the responsibility for setting the time, I do not know that I should choose four years; but no other period seems to me any better. We have it; let us keep it and use it wisely" (19: 86). In this statement he does not take account of the fact that he has only a part of his students for the four-year period and a part for a shorter period. Carter Davidson, speaking of a degree which would signify the termination of the period of general education, says: "For such a degree four years will seem all too short, but every minute will be

valuable in its effect on the individual and society" (2: 21). Thus, for what these men consider general education should be and should accomplish, four years above the high school is not too long a period. This viewpoint, however, does not recognize the first meaning of the term "general education"—its universality in terms of the population—although Wriston on another occasion formulated this meaning himself: "The word 'general' seems to have a double meaning when used in this phrase. It appears to refer, upon the one hand, to an education made available to all—or to as nearly all as possible—of our citizenship" (4: 1).

Since the number of persons who at present complete four years of college work represents only a small percentage of the population of their age, the four-year proposal for the completion of general education seems to lack a realistic approach to the problem, unless the spokesmen in question would go on to urge that all persons of the appropriate ages should be kept in college for four years. This solution they do not urge.

While the views of Wriston and Davidson are those of some other college administrators, they are not generally representative, for many liberal-arts colleges have begun to consider their first two years of work as distinct and more or less apart from the last two years and have reorganized their programs accordingly.

The more prevalent view with regard to the place of general education is expressed by Works:

In the junior college which is a part of a four-year college or university, as well as in the separate junior college, the completion of its work has in this country generally come to be regarded as marking the termination of general education, i.e., general in contrast with professional education or intensive study in a relatively restricted academic field. True there are those who regret this condition, but it is already fairly completely established in our pattern of higher education [2: 3-4].

While this statement finds wide support in the practices of higher institutions, in the rise of the junior college, in the combining of high-school and junior-college work in the same institutions, and in the fact that about half of the students who enter college do not remain after the second year, it should also be borne in mind that about a third of the students who enter college remain only one

year. This large mortality is found in the four-year liberal-arts colleges, and in the two-year junior colleges the percentage of students who drop out or transfer at the end of the first year is about 40. In other words, one-third of the college entrants drop out at the end of the first year, and one-sixth drop out at the end of the second year.¹

The problem of the period of general education is somewhat further complicated, though in some ways clarified as well, by the invention of new units of educational organization and the breaking-down of some of the barriers between units in the system. Some high schools begin at Grade VI, some begin at Grade VII, some at Grade VIII, and most, of course, at the traditional Grade IX. Some of these schools are two-year institutions, some three-year institutions, some four-year institutions, some five-year institutions, and some even six-year institutions. They combine the following grades: VI-VIII, VI-XI, VII-VIII, VII-IX, VII-X, VII-XI, VII-XII, VIII-IX, VIII-X, IX-X, and IX-XII. There are colleges that begin with Grade XI and some that begin with Grade XIII. The multiplicity and the variety of educational units, all within the commonly accepted period of general education, do not necessarily affect the substance of general education, but these units do have a bearing on the organization and the continuity of the program. Their existence represents an effort on the part of the persons who are responsible for American education to reform the system on the basis of logic and in the light of educational research. This problem of the reorganization of the units of the educational system is the problem of articulation—articulation of units which are usually separately controlled but which are concerned with the same process and the same students.

Judd, in describing the educational system, says:

The true function of the junior college [the level which he describes as the final stage of general education] and of every other unit in the educational system, is to take pupils at a certain stage of immaturity, which is determined by their own natures and by their antecedent training, and sympathetically and

¹ These figures are based on data in the office of the secretary of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and represent enrolment figures in accredited junior colleges and four-year institutions for the academic year 1936-37.

intelligently to contribute to the processes of progressive maturing of these students. The junior college is only one factor in a continuous scheme of education. We can define its functions fully and finally only when we understand the scheme as a whole. . . .

A clearer conception of the relations of the various units of the American educational system would result in a marked reduction of the waste which now results from mutual suspicion and lack of co-operation among educational institutions [12: 12-13].

Judd proposes the following solution:

If, in the midst of this chaos, it were possible for a group of trained administrators to sit down for a long enough period to canvass the whole educational program from primary grades to university, most of the present uncertainties could, I believe, be cleared away [12: 12].

Until there is some agreement on the character of the educational units which are to have a part in the program of general education, it will be almost impossible to formulate that program coherently and economically. Until we learn, probably from experimental situations, more than we now know regarding the problems of educational progress, there will be no substantial agreement. An attempt has been made in California to arrive, through scientific methods, at the proper place of division in educational organization. Popenoe, interested in devising a method for investigating social and educational maturity and homogeneity, studied the ages, the heights, and the weights of fourteen thousand children in five California high schools and junior colleges and found that, while there were slight breaks between certain grades, there was none at all between Grades XII and XIII, the traditional point of high-school graduation.

The index of alienation [says Proctor who reported the study] between these two grades was the smallest of any from the fifth through the fourteenth. There was evidence that physical maturity was reached between the tenth and eleventh grades, and that therefore the group in Grades XI, XII, XIII, and XIV is physically and mentally mature [14: 164].

This study did not result, however, in any conclusive evidence regarding the appropriate place to make a break in educational organization.

There is a rather general consensus that a two-year institution does not represent a period long enough to provide for a coherent

program of education, and the proposal for a four-year institution to include the last two years of the present high school and the first two years of the college has had a friendly reception by several students of the problem. One of the advantages of such a four-year unit is the increased holding power of the last two years. In the Pasadena Junior College, which is such a unit, the percentage of students who went on from Grade XII to Grade XIII rose from 22 to 60 when the six-four-four plan was put into operation, compared with 47 per cent of the high-school graduates who enter institutions of higher learning in the state of California as a whole (4: 138).

If, then, general education is a continuous process, as Judd suggests, from the time it begins until it stops, the setting-up of separate units to perform certain parts of that process will, apparently, be based on administrative and economic considerations rather than on any evidence now available as to the physiological point at which a pupil should be graduated from one institution to another.

Regardless of how the program of general education is articulated in the educational system, it must be admitted that, owing to many considerations, among which the economic are conspicuous, the highest level of education for the majority of persons of school age is coming to be accepted in this country as the junior-college period. This development represents a continuation of the extension of the school system which began early in American educational history. In other words, it is becoming more and more true that the average person remains in an educational institution through Grade XIV. As this fact becomes generally accepted in the thinking of educators and laymen alike, few persons will be heard raising the question of who should go to college at this level just as few now raise the question of who should go to high school. The question is already being decided by statutes which have raised the compulsory school-attendance age in several states and by economic conditions which make it increasingly difficult for persons to find work before reaching twenty years of age.

Thus, in the public institutions, which have little freedom of selection, the program at this level must be set up for a rather unselected group of students. Private colleges, however, differ so greatly in the intellectual ability of their students (institutional averages on the

American Council Psychological Examination range from about 235 to about 85)¹ that a program suitable for one group would probably be largely unsuitable for another. The range of abilities within single institutions is also sufficiently large in many cases to indicate a necessity for a variable program within an institution. In a discussion of general education, then, the particular program in question should be considered in terms of the students for whom it is constructed.

If the junior-college period becomes finally accepted as the proper point for terminating general education, the problem of who should go to college at a level above that of the junior college can be narrowed down to a consideration of the types of general, specialized, and professional education offered above this level and of the students who can profit by these programs. Conant has expressed the view of several persons regarding the extent to which advanced education should be provided:

I am inclined to think that probably there are too many rather than too few students attending the universities of the country. I should very much question the desirability of increasing materially the number in our professional schools. Indeed, in some instances the number might well be reduced. The social problems created by serious unemployment in the learned professions are obvious.

....

At the risk of being dogmatic without sufficient evidence, I suggest that the country at large would benefit by an elimination of at least a quarter, or perhaps one-half, of those now enrolled in advanced university work, and the substitution of others of more talent in their place [1: 565-66].

Some have urged that, since the junior-college period constitutes the terminal period of general education and since most persons who enter college drop out by the end of the second year, there should be recognition in the form of a degree for the completion of this work. Works has indicated several reasons why the Bachelor's degree could logically be used to signify the termination of general education:

(1) Such a degree is a logical and desirable recognition of the completion of a definite educational stage. (2) Its award would tend to deter some from taking additional advanced work merely for the sake of a degree. This would open the

¹ According to figures given every year by L. L. Thurstone and Thelma Gwinn Thurstone in the April issue of the *Educational Record*.

way for them to become established in the social and economic order at an earlier age. (3) It would facilitate the organization of three-year programs leading to the M.A. (4) It might open the way for the development of professional education that would make it possible for students to begin their professional careers at an earlier age [18: 10].

Those who oppose this suggestion are, for the most part, representatives of the four-year liberal-arts institutions who contend that four years above the high school is not too long a period for general education and who believe that the offering of the Bachelor's degree at the end of the junior-college period would tend to cheapen the significance of the degree.

With regard to the period which general education should occupy in the educational system, it may be said, in summary, that most evidence of both an objective and a subjective character points toward the extension of the program of general education begun in the grades through the junior-college period. What will be the purposes of this program at its higher levels?

THE PURPOSES OF GENERAL EDUCATION

While the words used by recent writers in describing the purposes of general education are not the same, their statements on the subject have a great deal in common; that is, there are several common elements although these elements enter into the statements with varying degrees of emphasis. One of these elements is the consideration of the student as an individual with intellectual, social, and other traits to be developed. Here it is the personality of the student, or perhaps his individuality, or his originality which is to be developed, and he is considered more or less apart from the world in which he lives. The other most common element in these statements is the reference to the student as a member of society in which and to which he reacts and in which he lives. In this case an effort is made to provide the student with an understanding of that society.

Scarcely any current writers would entirely confine the purposes of general education to one or the other of these elements. In most cases the elements are combined in related fashion. The following statements are typical of the majority of those being put forth

at the present time by writers and speakers on the subject. They do not represent, however, the more or less vague statements which find their way into college catalogues and other institutional literature.

SPROUL: An attempt would be made to give all students: (1) An understanding of man's place in the world, historically and contemporaneously. (2) An understanding of the natural phenomena of the universe and of the methods by which man moves toward complete control of nature. (3) An appreciation of the emotional satisfactions to be found in beauty, whether of painting, sculpture, music, or literature. (4) Knowledge of the tools which man needs in his thinking and acting, and some skill in their use—courses in languages and mathematics [15: 135].

BOBBITT: 1. General education should store away securely in the memory organized bodies of proved information. . . . 2. General education should discipline the mind so that it may become skilful in discovering, organizing, and expressing that kind of information that is considered within academic walls. . . . 3. General education should prepare one for current and continuous high-grade civilized living [12: 16].

HUTCHINS: [A college is] an institution, whose only excuse for existing is the training of the mind [8: 16]. [In another place he elaborates what he means by the training of the mind. It consists in "the cultivation of the intellectual virtues," namely, "intuitive knowledge," "scientific knowledge," "philosophical wisdom," "art," and "prudence" (6: 62-63).]

WRISTON [whose aim for general education is "personal development"]: I suggest that a general education consist in acquaintance with and facility in basic disciplines. . . . The first is the discipline of precision. . . . The second basic discipline is appreciation or emotional response. . . . The third basic discipline is opinionation. . . . The final discipline . . . is reflective synthesis [4: 5-16].

WIRTH: The purpose of general education is to give to the students who will go on living if not studying after they are graduated a sense of the whole of modern thought which shall be sufficiently ordered and impressive that it will succeed in penetrating into whatever realm of life or thought or science with which they may become preoccupied [4: 31].

PRESCOTT: In my opinion the objectives of general education should be: (1) the development of clear thinking leading to intelligent action; (2) the development of clear, convincing, and persuasive expression as the medium of expressing thought; (3) the development of an imagination sensitive to the effects of literature, music, and the plastic arts; (4) the knowledge and understanding of the history of the past and the environment of the present in those respects that vitally affect intelligent activity in our present-day world. [This program is for an eight-year institution terminating at the end of the junior college.] [4: 21.]

BEWKES: General education must encompass these three things—an appreciation of already achieved values; the open-minded, objective attitude toward a flexible present; and a direction toward ideals philosophically grounded [4: 109].

MACLEAN: Our concept of general education is, then, one of a training process designed to make young people at home in their complex modern world . . . to give them the chance to make themselves supple and adaptable to change . . . to enlarge their vision to see the wholeness of human life . . . and to let them acquire a sense of values in the many phases of their adult living outside the strictly vocational [4: 120].

KELLY: The twentieth-century college is attempting to help the student in three ways (a) in discovering his own capacities and interests, actual and potential; (b) in revealing to him the implications of those capacities and interests; and (c) in contributing to their realization [13: 53].

It is difficult to classify these statements of objectives. They are as vague, perhaps, as catalogue statements on the subject, and most of the authors would probably be put to it to show in detailed fashion how the objectives outlined are to be accomplished. Perhaps if the most general statement were selected (if such a selection were possible), it would be inclusive of all the aims expressed in the others. The only really distinguishing feature seems to be the placing of the emphasis either on the student as an individual or on the student as a member of society, and in most of the statements quoted both these viewpoints are reflected. Hutchins, perhaps, has the most singleness of purpose—"the cultivation of the intellectual virtues."

Certain things seem clear about the purposes of general education. In the first place, these purposes must be governed, at least in part, by the purposes of the educational system as a whole and by the purposes of those phases of the educational system which precede, in point of time, general education at its higher level. In the second place, these purposes will govern, if they are realities, the place that general education occupies in the system, the number and the variety of students who partake of it, its content, and its modes of instruction. In the third place, while all the aims may be laudable, if they are so vague that they cannot be recognized or if they are not so related to educational activities as to be seen as an outcome of those activities, then they can have little reality as objectives of high-school or college education. Necessarily, if the per-

sons engaged in education are to set up and to accept certain purposes and objectives, they must be aware of the implications of those purposes for the practices and the procedures which they follow. The content proposed for general education must, then, be examined in the light of the purposes which have been set as the goal.

THE CONTENT OF GENERAL EDUCATION

Current practices of American colleges and secondary schools and the statements of educators do not reveal any uniform acceptance of principles or patterns of curriculum construction at the level of general education. Even where agreement on purposes exists, a great variety of methods are used in implementing those purposes through the curriculum. This absence of agreement on the content of general education is explained in part by the absence of an adequate body of educational knowledge leading to the formulation of principles for curriculum construction.

Present curriculums rest largely on assumptions, hypotheses, and beliefs regarding what should be taught. As the scope of knowledge outdistanced the capacity of the mind to master it *in toto*, the range of assumptions and beliefs regarding what should be taught widened until now scarcely any two curriculums proposed or in operation are identical. A century ago most curriculums at the secondary level approached identity. Despite the variety at the present time, there have been certain rather well-defined trends in the last quarter-century. Hawkes has distinguished three trends. First, the curriculum was subject-matter-centered; then it became teacher-centered; and now it is student-centered. He notes two assumptions underlying the subject-matter-centered curriculum:

First, that there were certain mental disciplines that served to toughen the intellectual fiber; and, second, there are certain subject matters of which no person who wished to be known as an educated gentleman should be ignorant. With the passage of time, opinion on each of these questions has become far from unanimous [5: 249].

Another way of looking at the history of the curriculum of general education would be to consider it before and after President Eliot. When Eliot upset the traditional belief in a pattern of required courses as the basis for a liberal education, he brought to an end one

era and opened up for discussion a new set of problems, none of which has received final treatment. Immediately after Eliot's innovations at Harvard there was a swing toward complete election of courses; there is now a return to a middle ground of part election and part prescription.

One of the most widely discussed approaches to the problem of content at the present time is that of Hutchins, which might be called the "great-book theory" or the "classic-book theory." He says: "We have then for general education a course of study consisting of the greatest books of the western world and the arts of reading, writing, thinking, and speaking, together with mathematics, the best exemplar of the processes of human reason" (6: 85). He puts reading, writing, thinking, and speaking into his program as basic to the study of great books. In his earlier discussions of the problem Hutchins laid great stress on the ancients. More recently, in discussing which books he has been talking about, he indicates a greater leeway:

Do not suppose that in thus including the ancients in my course of study I am excluding the moderns. I do not need to make a case for the moderns. I do apparently need to remind you that the ancients may have some value, too.

Do not suppose, either, that because I have used as examples the great books in literature, philosophy and the social sciences, I am ignoring natural science. The great works in natural science and the great experiments must be a part and an important part of general education [9: 389].

He even goes so far as to say that, "if any reasonably intelligent person will conscientiously try to list the one hundred most important books that have ever been written I will accept his list" (9: 390). It is well to recall here that Hutchins' objective for general education is the "training of the mind" or the "cultivation of the intellectual virtues." How then does his curriculum accomplish his purpose? His thesis is that all the problems of the present day were raised and discussed in the books of Socrates, Plato, and other classical writers. His final answer to the question of how his curriculum accomplishes his purpose seems to lie in his query: "How can we call a man educated who has never read any of the great books in the western world?" (6: 78)

Foerster believes, as does Hutchins, that the world at present is

a victim of the dread disease, chaos, and that what is needed is the "adoption of a humanistic or religious working philosophy, and the cure [for chaos] . . . will not be complete until we have built up a metaphysics or a theology as impressive as those of ancient Greece and the Middle Ages." He suggests that the first step to be taken by the colleges is the "reintroduction into the course of study of the great books of the world" (3: 49). He also believes that any course which could not be built around the great books should disappear from the curriculum. The reasons that Foerster ascribes for the great-book theory of the college curriculum are founded in assumptions which not only ignore but preclude the use of whatever scientific knowledge exists regarding educational method, and his reasons imply a faith in his assumptions closely akin to the faith necessary for the impressive theology that he would construct.

B. Lamar Johnson (10) suggests three methods for constructing a curriculum. First, there is the "going-to-the-specialist method," in which specialists in the various fields of learning would be requested to indicate what they believe should be taught, "assuming of course that these specialists understand our objective." This method was followed by Boucher at the University of Chicago. The second method is the "going-to-the-student method," utilized by MacLean to some extent in the General College of the University of Minnesota. The third method is the "going-to-the-graduates method." Charters used this method at Stephens College, and, from the inspection of scientifically kept diaries of several hundred women graduates, he arrived at a series of problems with which general education should deal. Some of the classifications of the 7,493 problems raised by this method are food, clothing, physical hygiene, mental hygiene, schooling, social relations, literature, nature, gratification of random interest, increase of circle of interest, introspection, and associative thinking. Twenty-five such classifications of the problems were found to constitute the irreducible minimum for a comprehensive curriculum that would meet the actual needs of women students (12: 29-30). Since this curriculum was established for a four-year junior college for women, it is obvious that it cannot be generally recommended as useful to all institutions.

President Wilkins of Oberlin College says that "general education . . . implies . . . some measure of significant and ordered knowledge of each of the main fields of human interest." As he outlines them, these "fields of human interest" include eight physical sciences (physics, chemistry, astronomy, geology, botany, zoölogy, anatomy, and physiology); three physical-social sciences (geography, hygiene, and psychology); three social sciences (sociology, economics, and political science); three studies closely related to the social sciences (history, philosophy, and religion); five arts (literature, music, architecture, sculpture, and painting); and four general mental tools (mathematics, logic, English, and foreign languages). "Are there among the subjects listed," he asks, "any of such outstanding significance that they should certainly appear in the typical individual curriculum?" He goes on to say: "My answer is distinctly, yes, and the subjects I should designate—with full recognition of the fact that there is room for difference of opinion in this matter—are hygiene, psychology, logic, and English" (17: 17).

Hawkes phrased this same question a little differently:

Is there any particular subject matter that a given individual must know in order to be recognized as a cultured gentleman by those who know one when they see him? . . . apart from such knowledge of one's native tongue as will enable one to use it correctly and clearly in speech and in writing, there is no such specific subject matter [5: 249].

It is of some interest that Wriston, whose purpose for general education ("acquaintance with and facility in basic disciplines") is much the same as that of Hutchins ("the training of the mind"), disagrees with Hutchins on the matter of content. Wriston says:

As certain foods are rich in the several vitamins, so many fields of subject matter are rich in the several basic disciplines. . . . We should choose that which appeals to us as the most vital—but our emphasis should be not only upon the content, but upon its relationships to other fields of study, and upon its most characteristic disciplines [19: 162].

An interesting suggestion designed to lead out of this confusion or chaos—or, as Wriston says of current college curriculums, this "educational jungle"—is presented by Taylor:

The basis of selection of the required courses here proposed is the institutional organization of society. All can accept the fact that the five basic insti-

tutions are the home, the school, the state, the church, and the vocation. Subject matter has been organized and reorganized time after time, but these five institutions are persistent and permanent. Why, then, not have as the required foundation of all college education courses explaining the history and functions of these institutions? [16: 734].

It is clear from these various statements that there is no accepted pattern or curriculum for general education. Nor is there any accepted method by which a generally acceptable curriculum can be constructed. One reason for the lack of a method is the variation in purposes with which different persons invest general education. Another reason is the lack of knowledge of how to set up a program to accomplish a particular purpose once it has been stated. Most of these problems are still discussed in terms of individual biases and personal predilections. Here is one place where educational research is needed.

SUMMARY

If the unsolved problems bearing on general education are brought together, they constitute a formidable list. Some of the most important of these may be summarized as follows:

PROBLEMS RELATING TO THE PERIOD OF GENERAL EDUCATION

1. At what point does general education begin and end in the educational system of the country?
2. At what points in the educational system should breaks occur between elementary, secondary, and higher education? Are there distinct phases in the program from the nursery school to the college, or is the process single and continuous?
3. What should be the relation between general education and specialized and professional education?
4. What should be the relation between secondary education and higher education at the junior-college level?
5. Should a degree be granted to signify the completion of general education rather than the completion of four years of work above the high school? If so, what degree?

PROBLEMS RELATING TO THE PURPOSES OF GENERAL EDUCATION

1. From what standpoint should the purposes of general education be expressed—from the standpoint of the student, the institution, the curriculum, or the social and economic order which supports the program?

2. Can the same purposes of general education be equally suitable for all institutions? For all students?
3. Who should determine the purposes of general education?

PROBLEMS RELATING TO THE CONTENT OF GENERAL EDUCATION

1. Should the content of the curriculum of general education be selected with a view to imparting in the time allowed as many facts or as much knowledge to the student as possible?
2. Is general education composed of only a small number of universally applicable subjects?
3. How much of the program should be required—all, part, or none?
4. Does the content make much difference? Is not the effect on the student's habits of thought more important than the effect on his memory?
5. Can the content of general education be the same for all students? For all institutions?
6. Should the content be organized in terms of divisions of subject matter, such as courses (survey or traditional), or in terms of situations and problems which involve several fields?
7. Who should determine the content of general education—the teacher, the student, the alumnus, the specialist, or the educationist?
8. What place should examinations have in the program of general education?

The interrelations of these issues are of more importance to the success of a program of general education than is any issue alone. When these interrelations are considered, the following questions, among others, arise.

If a program of general education of a given content and of given difficulty is prescribed, then should not the students admitted to that program be only those who can profit thereby? If, on the other hand, any high-school graduate is to be admitted to the program of general education, should not that program provide something of value to every student at his own level of ability and interest?

If general education is to serve primarily as the culmination of a student's formal education, should not its character be determined by that of the previous education? If, however, general education is to be considered as the foundation upon which specialized and professional work will be built, should not its character be determined in part by the needs of that specialized or professional work? Is it possible to set up a program which can be equally related to what has gone before and to what is yet to come?

If general education is thought to be composed of only a few basic studies, the mastery of which can and should be completed within the period devoted to general education, then will not prescription be complete? If, though, general education is thought to be composed of a wide variety of subjects, not all of

which are necessary and not all of which can be mastered in the time allotted to general education, then will not varying amounts of election be used?

If the purpose of general education is merely to keep men and women off the streets until they reach a certain age, does the content of the program matter? If the purpose is to inform the student regarding recent economic changes and recent social trends, should not the program be formulated accordingly? If the purpose is to develop habits of thought or traits of character, must not the program conform to the realization of that end?

Clearly, the solution of such issues as the content of general education depends on the purposes of general education. In other words, there is a priority of the decisions which are to be made about these problems of general education. If this priority exists and if we can find a point from which to begin, we may be able to build up the program by a sequence of logical decisions.

Hutchins has announced his hierarchy or priority of decision as follows:

First, we must clear the air of the confusion arising from all kinds of talk about education by all kinds of people, whether well-meaning or selfish.

Then we must decide what the object of education should be, without regard to the popularity of the vices of the age.

Then we must discover, in the light of the object of education, what is an education and what is not.

Then we must find out by what method and by what scheme of organization we can best communicate education to those who need it.

Then we must learn how to train teachers, and we must attract competent men and women to the teaching profession. I think we can do all this [7: 98].

Whether "we can do all this" or not, the interdependence and the interrelations of these various problems of general education exist, and the consideration of one of them separately and independently assumes certain decisions regarding the others. Only by studying the content of general education and its modes of instruction in terms of its purposes, its students, and its relations to other phases of the educational system can an adequate program be worked out.

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ARTICULATION OF BUSINESS SUBJECTS IN HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES IN ILLINOIS

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THE PROBLEM

SINCE 1890 the number of commercial subjects taught in the high schools has increased steadily. When more courses are offered, more pupils are likely to take these courses, both as sequences in prescribed commercial curriculums and as electives in general, academic, or college-preparatory curriculums. With the movement toward flexibility in the courses required for high-school graduation and for college entrance, certain commercial subjects have gained recognition and are accepted in satisfaction of both kinds of requirements. The view that commercial or business subjects are worthy companions of the more traditional subjects has, no doubt, been brought about by the increased offering of business subjects on the part of colleges and by the establishment at the collegiate level of separate schools or departments of business, presumably to fill a definite need.

This rise of the business subjects to a prominent place at both the high-school and the college level makes pertinent the question: Is there articulation or overlapping in the business-subject offerings in the two types of institutions? For example, pupils in high school take a year's work in bookkeeping. Are they required, or permitted, to take the same or a similar course in college? Is any recognition, in addition to possible entrance credit, given to the high-school work? Is there some definite means whereby overlapping is avoided?

The investigation here reported attempted to answer these and similar questions for the public high schools of the state of Illinois in relation to twelve universities and colleges in the state. These universities and colleges have recognized the field of business educa-

tion to the extent of establishing separate schools or departments of business or commerce. No attempt was made to report on other problems allied to this aspect of articulation and overlapping. Some of these allied questions are: Is the number of students who present business subjects for college-entrance credit and who continue their work in the business fields large enough to warrant attempts at articulation? Is such articulation desirable? Should some group of courses be considered "standard"? By whom should they be standardized?

The ramifications of the general question of articulation in the case of the business subjects are similar to those which have already been studied and which are being studied in the case of the more traditionally academic courses. The hope is that this survey of the situation, even though concerned with one state, will add to the understanding of the problems of articulation and overlapping of business subjects at the two levels and will stimulate further study of the difficulties.

It seemed necessary to find out what are the typical business courses offered at the high-school level; to discover what courses are given in sufficient number to be considered as subjects that might overlap those offered at the college level; to determine whether these courses approximate in content any offered at the college level; to determine what, if any, courses overlap at the two levels; and, finally, to discover what means are used, if any, either by the high schools or by the colleges, to prevent overlapping and to make for articulation.

HIGH-SCHOOL BUSINESS SUBJECTS

Data with regard to the business subjects offered during the school year 1936-37 were obtained from a study of those high schools outside Chicago with enrolments of more than two hundred and by a subsequent study of smaller schools. A letter, containing a request for a catalogue, bulletin, pamphlet, or other printed matter describing the commercial courses offered, and a questionnaire were sent to a member of the commercial department in each of the 207 schools with enrolments of more than 200 and to 250 of the 431 high schools with enrolments of fewer than 200. Usable replies on the

questionnaire were received from 293, or 45.9 per cent, of the total number of schools. Few of the co-operators responded to the request for printed matter, many stating that they had no such literature.

The offerings and the typical characteristics of the eight dominant business subjects taught in 293 high schools of Illinois are presented in Table 1. When the schools were divided into groups in accordance

TABLE 1
TYPICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE EIGHT DOMINANT BUSINESS
SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN 293 HIGH SCHOOLS IN ILLINOIS

SUBJECT	SCHOOLS OFFERING		LENGTH IN SEMESTERS	HIGH-SCHOOL YEAR IN WHICH OFFERED	ASPECT
	Number	Per Cent			
Typewriting.....	283	96.6	4 or 2	Junior and Senior	Vocational
Bookkeeping.....	279	95.2	2	Junior and Senior	Vocational or nonvocational
Shorthand.....	262	89.4	4 or 2	Junior and Senior	Vocational
Economics.....	192	65.5	1	Junior and Senior	Nonvocational
Elementary business training.....	153	52.2	2	Freshman and Sophomore	Nonvocational
Commercial geography.....	144	49.1	1	Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior	Nonvocational
Commercial law....	140	47.8	1	Junior and Senior	Nonvocational
Commercial arithmetic.....	139	47.4	1	Sophomore, Junior, and Senior	Nonvocational

with enrolment, it was found that the offerings and the characteristics were the same for each enrolment group as for the entire group. No course other than the eight listed in Table 1 was offered by more than 15 per cent of the schools. Other courses found were clerical practice, stenography, use of office appliances, accounting, cost accounting, penmanship, spelling, business English, salesmanship, business organization, advertising, vocations, industrial history, and banking. Because of the infrequency with which these courses were offered, the investigation was limited to the eight courses listed in Table 1.

The contents of the eight dominant business subjects offered by the high schools were determined by listing the topics treated in the textbooks used. The textbooks used in a single school were not included. The topics treated were tabulated for each textbook. From this tabulation the topics of most frequent mention were found. These topics, with the characteristics of the courses shown in Table 1, formed the basis for the comparison with the college courses. The use of the topics in the textbooks as the basis for determining content does not take into consideration either additions to, or omissions from, these topics made by a school or a teacher, but it is considered an adequate, though rough, measure of probable content.

COLLEGE BUSINESS SUBJECTS

The data on the business subjects offered in the twelve colleges and universities were obtained from catalogues and from a letter, which was sent to the heads of the college departments or schools of business, asking for information regarding the textbooks used in the various college courses. The catalogues of the colleges for the school year 1936-37 were examined to see what business courses were offered. The titles of certain courses seemed to be similar to the eight high-school subjects. The catalogue descriptions of the college courses were examined to determine whether the similarity was close enough to warrant an analysis of the college textbooks and a comparison with the high-school textbooks. These college courses and the high-school courses to which they might correspond are listed in Table 2. This rather superficial examination of the business subjects offered in college seemed to indicate that typewriting, principles of accounting, shorthand, principles of economics, and economic geography might overlap the high-school courses in content. Three others—mathematics of finance, business law, and organization of business—might be similar to the corresponding high-school courses, but they seemed to differ in the extent of content.

The textbooks in each subject, except organization of business (for which no particular title or group of titles was listed), were examined, and the topics presented were tabulated. (In the case of typewriting, shorthand, mathematics of finance, and business law, no table was set up because each of the items listed in the discussion

of these subjects was found to be present in 100 per cent of the books examined in the respective subjects.) From this tabulation the topics of most frequent mention were found. Again, this method does not take into consideration either additions to, or omissions from, these topics, but it gives a rough basis for comparison.

TABLE 2
BUSINESS SUBJECTS OFFERED IN HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE
THAT MAY BE SIMILAR IN CONTENT

High-School Course	Percentage of Schools Offering Course	College Course	Percentage of Institutions Offering Course
Typewriting.....	96.6	Typewriting.....	33.3
Bookkeeping.....	95.2	Principles of accounting....	100.0
Shorthand.....	89.4	Shorthand.....	41.7
Economics.....	65.5	Principles of economics.....	100.0
Elementary business training	52.2	Organization of business....	33.3
Commercial geography.....	49.1	Economic geography.....	66.7
Commercial law.....	47.8	Business law.....	100.0
Commercial arithmetic.....	47.4	Mathematics of finance....	58.3

COMPARISON OF CONTENT OF HIGH-SCHOOL
AND COLLEGE BUSINESS SUBJECTS

A comparison of the tabulation of topics treated in textbooks at both levels was made to determine the common topics. This comparison was, of course, limited to a determination of the similarity or the dissimilarity of the textbooks, but it furnished a direct, though rough, comparison of the probable content of the courses. Of the subjects compared, only those of a technical nature—typewriting, bookkeeping, and shorthand—were found to be sufficiently similar in apparent content to need some means of articulation. On the basis of this cursory examination, it seemed that overlapping was not likely to occur in the other subjects. The one exception to this statement might be economics, although the findings of this investigation were not sufficiently conclusive to indicate whether economics was a real exception.

MEANS OF ARTICULATION

The replies to the questionnaires sent to the high schools did not indicate that the schools made any provision for articulation in any

of the business subjects. The colleges and universities, therefore, were the sole possible sources of such provisions. The catalogues of the colleges were examined for indications of means of articulation of the high-school and college business subjects. The letters to the heads of the college departments also asked if any such means were set up for specific courses. The means of articulation for the three technical business subjects—typewriting, bookkeeping, and short-

TABLE 3
MEANS OF ARTICULATION PROVIDED BY COLLEGES FOR THREE
TECHNICAL BUSINESS SUBJECTS ALSO OFFERED
IN HIGH SCHOOLS

MEANS OF ARTICULATION	NUMBER OF COLLEGES		
	Typewriting	Principles of Accounting	Shorthand
Colleges offering course.....	4	12	5
Colleges providing special courses.....	2	1	3
Colleges granting admission to advanced work	3	2*	2
Colleges giving special examinations granting admission to advanced work and college credit.....	1†	1	1†
Colleges giving special examinations granting admission to advanced work but not college credit.....	2	2*	1

* Only the first and the second semester's work is thus articulated.

† College credit is granted by one university to enable prospective teachers to qualify for the state teaching certificate. This credit is not transferable, nor are these courses covered in the examinations for a degree.

hand—were found to be of four kinds: (1) special courses for students who present high-school credit in the subject; (2) admission to advanced courses in the field on the basis of high-school credit; (3) special examinations which, if passed successfully, grant admission to advanced courses and college credit; and (4) special examinations which, if passed successfully, grant admission to advanced courses but not college credit.

The frequency of the provision of means of articulation by the colleges and universities is shown in Table 3. It must be noted that the totals of the columns do not give the number of institutions offering some means of articulation, for two methods are often pro-

vided by the same college. No method appeared to be used by all colleges that provide some means. The limited number of means of articulating business subjects offered in both high school and college seems to bear out the statement made by Koos concerning certain academic subjects: "There is, thus, *an all too common disregard in the college of what the student has compassed in his period of high-school training.*"¹

SUMMARY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER INQUIRY

Summary.—The business subjects most frequently offered in the high schools considered were eight in number: typewriting, book-keeping, shorthand, economics, elementary business training, commercial geography, commercial law, and commercial arithmetic. The business courses offered by the colleges that might duplicate these high-school courses were typewriting, principles of accounting, shorthand, principles of economics, organization of business, economic geography, business law, and mathematics of finance. An examination of the descriptions of the courses in the college catalogues and an analysis of the contents of the textbooks used at both levels indicate that only three of these subjects—typewriting, principles of accounting, and shorthand—duplicate the corresponding courses at the high-school level. Few means of articulation were found even for these three technical business subjects, and these means were used in only a few of the colleges and universities.

Suggestions for further inquiry.—In the investigation reported here, only the offerings of courses were considered. A study of enrolments within each subject would be pertinent, since the frequency of the offering is not necessarily the same as the frequency of the taking, at either the high-school or the college level. There is no need for articulation in any subject field unless a number of students take the subject at both levels. A study of the frequency with which students who have had the high-school course take the similar course at the college level would, therefore, be desirable.

A more intensive study of the overlapping of content is needed for

¹ Leonard Vincent Koos, *The Junior College*, p. 403. Research Publications of the University of Minnesota, Education Series No. 5. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1924.

each subject field. A study could well be made of the overlapping of the content of textbooks, not only for the subjects here mentioned, but also for the other business subjects. Studies in which consideration would be given to the additions to, and the omissions from, the topics presented in the textbooks would be of value.

Some study of actual overlapping would be of value in the commercial field. The degree to which a student has profited from the high-school course and his ability to carry the advanced college work could be determined by the use of tests. For example, in the technical business subjects, such as typewriting and shorthand, a test of proficiency in the particular skill would show the approximate placement of the student who has had the high-school work in comparison with students who take the work in college. If the former high-school student ranked as high as college students completing the course, it would at least indicate that he might be allowed to enter the advanced work. Such tests of ability could be devised for the other commercial subjects, as well as for academic subjects. Testing would perhaps be one of the best methods of avoiding overlapping and of providing articulation in any subject field.

The questions of overlapping and the means of articulation provided in the academic subjects are still being studied. It is hoped that the study reported here has shown that these same questions should also be thoroughly investigated for the business subjects.

LEADERSHIP IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

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*

STUDIES (1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12) have indicated that high-school leadership is closely associated with such factors as (1) curriculum chosen, (2) sex, (3) age, (4) scholarship, and (5) intelligence. They show that the members of the leader group tend to choose the college-preparatory curriculums, to be slightly older, and to possess higher scholarship and intelligence than the non-leader group. They also show significant differences between boy leaders and girl leaders.

The present investigation differs from previous reports principally in the fact that in this study of leaders and non-leaders these five factors were held constant.

CHOICE OF SUBJECTS AND METHOD OF SECURING DATA

Leaders.—A study was made of the graduating classes of eight high schools in Missouri, Oklahoma, and Illinois, the smallest of which enrolled more than a thousand pupils. The principal of each high school was asked to name the members of the current graduating class who were clearly the most outstanding leaders. Leaders were defined as pupils who possessed certain traits of originality, personality, and perspective and who inspired confidence in others to the extent that they were able to carry others with them. Leaders were distinguished from mere holders of positions.

After making his choice, the principal suggested two members of his faculty who were in closest personal contact with members of the Senior class, and each of them was also asked to name the leaders in the class. The final choice of leaders for the study was based on the combined judgment of all three, working independently.

Non-leaders.—Each leader was paired with a non-leader, with the factors already shown to have a definite bearing on leadership held

constant. Non-leader mates were of the same sex and were enrolled in the same curriculum as the leaders. The pairs varied not more than two points in intelligence quotient, not more than three months in chronological age, and in average scholarship not more than 0.5 of a point on a scale ranging from 0 to 4. The non-leader mates were also classified by the high-school authorities as definitely non-leaders on the basis of the description of leaders. The final group studied consisted of thirty-seven leaders and thirty-seven non-leaders.

Method of securing data.—The problem was to discover what, if any, were the personal characteristics and elements in the home environment which distinguished leaders from non-leaders. An attempt was made to discover these facts by means of controlled interviews with pupils and with their parents. The investigator interviewed the seventy-four pupils in the school and the mothers in their homes. All interviews were made within a period of approximately five months, November, 1936, to March, 1937.

CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERS AND NON-LEADERS

Because of the very nature of the material in this study, it is impossible to present the data with statistical precision. In many cases a clear-cut distinction could not be drawn between leader and non-leader patterns.

Attendance and health.—In Grades X and XI there was little difference between the attendance records of leader and non-leader girls, the average number of days absent being 4.6 and 4.3, respectively. Boy leaders, however, were absent about half as frequently as boy non-leaders, the averages being 2.9 and 5.1 days, respectively. During the two years preceding the interviews not one of the seventy-four pupils had required the services of a physician. A large part of their absence from school was attributed to illness by girl leaders (84 per cent of the absences), by girl non-leaders (91 per cent), and boy non-leaders (88 per cent). Less than half (46 per cent) of the absence of boy leaders was due to illness.

Broadening experiences.—Breadth of view is one of the qualities commonly associated with leadership. The advantages to be gained from such broadening experiences as attending summer camp, having private instruction in music and dancing, and working for pay are rather generally recognized.

Of the thirty-seven leaders, eleven had had camp experience during a total of eighteen summer sessions. Only two non-leaders had attended camp, one of whom had attended for one summer and the other for six summers.

Twenty-four leaders and thirty non-leaders had at some time received private instruction in music or dramatics. The leaders began such private instruction at a younger age, had more intensive instruction, and continued for a longer period.

More leaders (41 per cent) than non-leaders (35 per cent) had worked for pay. The work of the leaders was more largely confined to the summer vacation. Only 5 per cent of the leader group worked for pay during the school year; 32 per cent of the non-leader group did so. Outside employment during the school year may have limited opportunities for leadership.

Extramural activities.—The leaders engaged in more activities not connected with the school than did the non-leaders. The leaders participated in from one to twelve activities each, with an average of 4.5 per pupil; the non-leaders, in from one to six each, with an average of 1.9 per pupil.

Judged by the frequency of church attendance, non-leaders are more religious than leaders. Only one non-leader did not attend church. The other non-leaders attended religious services, on the average, 5.9 times a month. Leaders, on the average, attended four times a month. Two leaders did not attend church.

Only four (10.8 per cent) of the leaders did not attend athletic contests. The other leaders attended an average of 3.3 times a month. Six (16.2 per cent) of the non-leaders did not attend such contests. The average attendance of non-leaders was 2.7 times a month. Approximately the same relationship held in the case of attendance at concerts and the opera.

Membership in character-building organizations, such as Boy Scouts and Camp Fire Girls, and in fraternal organizations, such as the Order of DeMolay for Boys and the Order of the Rainbow, was decidedly in favor of the leader group. The leaders were members of fifty-six such organizations; the non-leaders, of twenty-four. The former were also more frequently leaders in these non-school organizations. Table 1 indicates that the leader group held more than three times the number of leadership positions. The greatest difference in

the activities is shown in the field of sports (5 to 0). It is interesting here to observe that the leaders occupied more than twice as many positions of leadership in religious organizations even though they attended less regularly than the non-leaders.

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF POSITIONS OF LEADERSHIP IN NON-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES
HELD BY HIGH-SCHOOL LEADER AND NON-LEADER GROUPS

TYPE OF ORGANIZATION	LEADERS			NON-LEADERS		
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both
Religious.....	9	8	17	3	4	7
Athletic.....	3	2	5	0	0	0
Social.....	2	4	6	0	1	1
Other.....	7	6	13	3	2	5
Total.....	21	20	41	6	7	13

PERSONALITY OF PARENTS AS AN
ENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR

If environment plays the part suggested by Burks (5), the trait of leadership displayed by pupils is perhaps affected by such factors as intelligence, occupations, education, and interests of the parents.

Intelligence of parents.—The intelligence scores of the two groups of pupils were kept constant. The Otis Self-administering Test of Mental Ability, which has been recommended by Thorndike (14) as an adequate measure of adult intelligence, was given to each mother. This test has a reliability coefficient of $.917 \pm .009$. Practically no difference was found between the mothers of leaders and non-leaders. The average intelligence quotients were 109.2 and 110.7, respectively.

Co-operation of parents.—The same test was left in the home to be given to the father, but for an entirely different purpose. It was realized that results from such a test could not be valid; the score would probably have indicated *family* intelligence rather than *father* intelligence. The purpose of leaving the test was to secure comparative data on parent co-operation for the two groups. Twice as many tests were returned from the leader as from the non-leader homes (70 per cent and 35 per cent, respectively).

Paternal occupation.—The father's occupation was rated according to the Barr scale (13: 66-69). The range of the non-leader group was from 3.62 to 18.06, with an average of 10.82, which is slightly higher than that of the population in general. The leader group ranged from 3.62 to 17.81, with an average of 11.56, which is slightly higher than the non-leader average.

Education.—Although the mean intelligence scores of the leader and the non-leader mothers were approximately the same, the leader mothers had had approximately two more years of schooling than had the non-leader mothers. Practically the same difference occurred with respect to the fathers. The leaders, as a whole, had better educated parents. Approximately a fifth of the parents of leaders and slightly more than half of the parents of non-leaders had not attended high school. The proportion of parents of leaders and non-leaders who had attended college was two to one.

Interests and activities.—It would seem that the parents' interests and activities in the civic and the social life of the community would affect the leadership trait in children. In sports, leader parents far exceeded the non-leader parents both in the number participating and in the average number of activities in which they participated. Leader parents tended to share more interests with each other than did the non-leader parents.

Artistic, intellectual, and religious interests each claimed about the same proportions of the total interests of the two groups of parents. There were noticeable differences, however, between leader and non-leader parents in the types of activities engaged in.

A larger percentage of non-leader than of leader fathers belonged to civic and welfare organizations of the communities, but leader fathers took more active parts within the organizations.

Most of the parents interviewed might be called thrifty, active people. In general, the leader parents had more interests and took part in more activities than the non-leader parents, but the contrast between the two parent groups was more noticeable in the kind and the intensity of the activities than in the number of activities engaged in.

GENERAL BACKGROUND OF LEADERS AND NON-LEADERS

Nationality.—There was practically no difference between the groups with respect to nationality.

Family history.—Practically the same number of homes in each group was unbroken. Although the difference with respect to unbroken homes was negligible, it is significant that only the immediate family lived within the home in thirty-five unbroken leader homes, while eleven persons outside the immediate family were living in seven of the thirty-four unbroken non-leader homes.

Position in family and number of children.—The leader was less likely to be the youngest child in his family than was the non-leader, and the youngest member of the family was more often a non-leader than a leader. Table 2 also shows that there were almost twice as many leaders as non-leaders among "only" children, while the chil-

TABLE 2
POSITION IN FAMILY OF HIGH-SCHOOL LEADERS AND NON-LEADERS

Position in Family	Number of Leaders	Number of Non-leaders	Total
Only child.....	12	7	19
Oldest.....	10	6	16
Youngest.....	6	9	15
Neither oldest nor youngest.....	9	15	24

dren occupying the in-between position, regarded by many as the ideal location in the family group, accounted for the greatest proportion of non-leaders.

The number of children in these families varied from one to eight, with an average of 2.9 children in the families of the leaders and 3.1 in the families of the non-leaders. Most of the children came from small families. The size of the family apparently has no relation to the trait of leadership in this group of high-school Seniors. It is likely that the findings are affected by the size of the sample studied, for they are in marked contrast to more extensive studies (4).

Prominent relatives.—The pupils were led into conversation about the occupations and accomplishments of their relatives. No attempt was made to check the list. The non-leaders mentioned fourteen distinguished relatives; the leaders, thirty-seven.

Socio-economic status.—Evidence of the significance of the economic factor in determining personality and character has been re-

ported by many investigators. The most thoroughgoing statistical studies reporting a close association between desirable traits and high economic level are those of Hartshorne and May (6), while Stagner (11) reports a close relation between undesirable personality traits and low economic level. Socio-economic status in the present study was compared by means of the family income and a rating of the home and neighborhood.

The family income of the leader group ranged from \$1,000 to \$10,000, with a mean of \$4,027. In the non-leader group the range was from complete dependence to \$20,000, with a mean of \$3,783. Three of the four families in the non-leader group where the income was under \$1,000 were relief cases. In contrast with the four cases of actual poverty, there were in the non-leader group three families whose income was higher than the highest reported by the leader group. Irregularity of income was much greater in the non-leader group, and fewer non-leader mothers had paid help in the home. Worry over employment and finances was also more common there.

The scale used to rate home and neighborhood was that devised by Williams (15). The leader and the non-leader homes scored 21.87 and 19.86, respectively, on this scale. On all items the homes of the leaders rated higher than those of the non-leaders. The mean home index of leaders' homes (21.87) exceeds that of unselected homes (20.78) by 1.09, approximately the same difference by which unselected homes exceed non-leader homes.

The investigator, in visiting a home, observed the surroundings and recorded an arbitrary neighborhood rating of 1 to 5 on the following basis: 1, very superior; 2, superior; 3, average; 4, inferior; 5, very inferior. The average rating of the leader neighborhoods (2.62) was superior to that of non-leader neighborhoods (3.24). These averages are lower than that reported by Terman, namely, 2.25, for the neighborhood environment of gifted children rated on a similar scale (13: 75-76). This difference may be due to difference in judgment of two observers and is, therefore, not so significant as the difference between the leader and the non-leader groups.

More non-leader than leader families owned their own homes, but leader families had, on the average, lived in the same neighborhood a longer time than had non-leader families.

Home atmosphere and child-parent attitude.—There was greater evidence of fixed home responsibilities among the leader group. Both groups of mothers appeared to be equally well acquainted with their children's teachers, but the leader homes more often entertained the teachers. Leader mothers were more actively interested in their children's activities and showed less inclination to push their children or to show lack of appreciation of their accomplishments.

Leaders confided more in their parents than did non-leaders (51 per cent and 30 per cent, respectively). Leaders spent less time with their parents, but their contacts were more harmonious.

SUMMARY

The pupil leaders had better school-attendance and health records, possessed better general appearance, had had more broadening experiences, and participated and led in extramural activities to a greater extent than non-leaders.

The intelligence of the mothers in the two groups was practically the same. The leader parents were better educated and were more co-operative. The interests and the activities of the leader parents were, on the whole, more intense, more diversified, and more unusual than those of the non-leader parents.

The homes of the leaders less often housed persons other than members of the immediate family. There was only a slight variation in nationality. The mean family income was similar, but the range for the non-leader homes was greater. The leader group surpassed the non-leader group in neighborhood rating, in home rating, and in home atmosphere.

There was a predominance of "only" children in the leader group.

The leaders were more critical of, yet more companionable with, their parents than were the non-leaders. The leaders had apparently been influenced by a greater number of prominent and successful relatives than had the non-leaders.

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ATTITUDES TOWARD REASONS FOR DISCHARGE OF TEACHERS

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THE PROBLEM

THE purpose of this study was (1) to reveal the attitudes of school administrators, teachers, patrons, and high-school Seniors toward a list of sixty-nine reasons for discharging teachers; (2) to show the extent of agreement in the reactions of these four groups; (3) to show the extent of agreement in the attitudes of the sexes for each of the four groups; and (4) to determine which of the sixty-nine reasons studied were selected by the largest percentage of each group as just and valid causes for the discharge of teachers.

The ideal situation in any organization is an efficient and a relatively stable personnel. The sincere, capable worker should be protected from competition with persons who are conspicuously inefficient or flagrantly indiscreet. At the same time, every earnest worker should feel secure from loss of position for petty or unimportant reasons.

The public school is supposed to be a democratic institution which is guarded jealously to prevent it from becoming the means of propaganda and indoctrination in the hands of any single interest group. School boards are elected by, and responsible to, the qualified voters of the school district. Through the school board, theoretically at least, the community maintains the type of school that it desires. The teacher is directly responsible to the school board or to an agent of the school board, the school executive, and indirectly responsible to the patrons of the school.

Teachers should have the same rights as other workers. They should be hired on the basis of fitness for the positions that they are to fill, and they should be discharged only when there is just cause

or when the welfare of the school demands that they be released. They should be granted the same privileges, with respect to religion, politics, and recreation, that other respectable citizens of the community enjoy. Teachers need to know the reasons which, in the opinion of school officials, patrons, and pupils, are valid reasons for discharging teachers so that they may be able to conform to community expectations. The general public should be able to differentiate between trivial and grave reasons for discharging teachers. It is hoped that the present study and similar investigations may arouse an interest in the problem of teacher dismissal.

THE PROCEDURE

As the first step in this study, a hundred forms were distributed among teachers and administrators of schools, who were asked to list reasons for the dismissal of teachers that had come under their observation during the past decade. A total of 578 reasons was reported. After the full list of reasons was classified, sixty-nine representative reasons were chosen for further consideration.

One hundred of each sex from each of the four groups mentioned (school administrators, teachers, patrons, and high-school Seniors) were asked to check one of the following responses for each of the sixty-nine reasons for discharging teachers: "Certainly discharge," "Probably discharge," "Probably not discharge," or "Certainly not discharge." Weightings were given each of these responses, and averages were obtained for each reason. Since each group had one hundred members, it was an easy matter to tell whether the average of a group—boy Seniors, for example—came nearest to "Certainly discharge," "Probably discharge," "Probably not discharge," or "Certainly not discharge" for each of the items.

AGREEMENT IN RESPONSES OF GROUPS

Correlations between the responses of various groups and combinations of groups are given in Table 1. The data in this table answer the question: What is the agreement between the responses made by the different groups?

The correlations between the responses of the groups considered in Table 1 are very high. The highest correlations for any two

groups are those between male and female patrons and between all teachers and all administrators. As might have been expected, the lowest correlations are those between the responses of Seniors and other groups. The very lowest correlation is that between all teachers and all Seniors.

There were eleven reasons for which all groups showed a decided tendency to discharge. These reasons can be classified into four

TABLE 1
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN RESPONSES OF TEN GROUPS ON
SIXTY-NINE REASONS FOR DISCHARGING TEACHERS

Groups Compared	Correlation
Male patrons and female patrons.....	.99 \pm .003
All teachers and all administrators.....	.99 \pm .003
Male administrators and female administrators..	.98 \pm .006
Male Seniors and female Seniors.....	.97 \pm .006
All teachers and all patrons.....	.94 \pm .012
All administrators and all patrons.....	.93 \pm .012
All Seniors and all patrons.....	.93 \pm .012
Male teachers and female teachers.....	.92 \pm .015
All Seniors and all administrators.....	.88 \pm .018
All teachers and all Seniors.....	.73 \pm .039

types according to their relation to the teacher's morality, to his honesty, to his efficiency, or to his willingness to co-operate with school authorities. The eleven reasons follow.

1. Teacher drank to the extent that work was not of a superior type on Mondays.
2. Woman teacher had dates with married men.
3. Teacher had improper relations with high-school students of the opposite sex.
4. Teacher was never prepared for class work. Frequently failed to meet classes.
5. Teacher had too great familiarity with students, told suggestive jokes, etc.
6. Teacher gave "hot" checks.
7. Teacher could not give account of expenditures of school funds.
8. Woman teacher smoked before students.
9. Health (physical defects) seemed to cause teacher to sleep through classes.
10. Teacher misrepresented certificate.
11. Teacher refused to take part in extra-curriculum work.

DIFFERENCES IN RESPONSES OF MEN AND WOMEN

Tabulations were made to show sex differences in responses. In the case of reasons for which the female respondents showed a greater tendency to discharge, the reasons in the majority of the instances referred to the personal habits of the teacher, while the reasons for which the men showed the greater tendency to discharge were those having to do with the efficiency of the teacher and his relation to the community. This generalization obtains even when the group of Seniors is considered. In the case of many of the reasons, the men showed a tendency to take an indefinite stand, while the women indicated that they would be more likely to discharge or to retain the teacher than to take a middle course. The men and the women of one group, the patrons, differed by as much as 10 per cent of the maximum possible variation on only one item, "Teacher did not attend church," the male patrons being more tolerant. Contrary to probable public opinion, the women of all groups showed a greater tendency than did the men to discharge women teachers for smoking at public gatherings, smoking while riding through the streets of the town of employment, or smoking before pupils.

RESPONSES OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Twenty-one forms of behavior met with the definite disapproval of the group of male administrators, all of which also met with the disapproval of at least five of the other groups. Not in a single form of behavior did the male administrators stand alone in unqualified disapproval. This finding indicates that the male administrator can be trusted to know and reflect the attitudes of his colleagues, his pupils, and his patrons in matters that would cause a teacher's discharge, at least so far as these matters are covered in the materials used in this study. The tabulations revealed also that the male administrators were slightly more concerned with forms of behavior related to school efficiency, while the female administrators, though also concerned with such forms, indicated that they considered the social behavior of the teachers of equal or even greater importance.

REASONS FOR DISCHARGE CONSIDERED VALID BY ALL GROUPS

Tabulations were also made to show the reasons for which 67 per cent or more of each of the groups gave a response of "Certainly discharge" or "Probably discharge." The largest number of reasons was listed by the patrons, each sex listing twenty-seven reasons. The fewest number of reasons was given by the Senior pupils, each sex checking fifteen reasons. Thirty-four reasons were marked as causes for teacher discharge by at least 67 per cent of the respondents of each group, male and female classifications being considered as separate groups. Ten of the thirty-four reasons were considered grounds for dismissal by two-thirds or more of every group. These ten reasons follow.

1. Teacher was never prepared for class work. Frequently failed to meet classes.
2. Teacher had improper relations with high-school students of the opposite sex.
3. Teacher drank to the extent that work was not of a superior type on Mondays.
4. Woman teacher had dates with married men.
5. Health (physical defects) seemed to cause teacher to sleep through classes.
6. Woman teacher smoked before students.
7. Teacher could not give account of expenditures of school funds.
8. Health of teacher necessitated frequent absences from school.
9. Teacher was known to have drunk alcoholic liquor immoderately.
10. Alleged misappropriation of school funds.

No reason in this list of ten is related to the teacher's training for his work, his co-operation with the school authorities, his method of teaching, or the performance of his civic duties. These ten reasons listed as sufficient cause for dismissal by as many as two-thirds of every group describe, then, the forms of behavior that a teacher must avoid if he expects to retain his position.

LIBERAL ATTITUDES RESULTING IN DISMISSALS

The reasons that have been listed in this article are those considered most serious by the persons who co-operated in this study. Other reasons frequently reported by the teachers and the administrators who supplied the list of instances of discharge related to freedom of teaching, for example, the taking by teachers of liberal

positions in political, economic, and social questions. Instances which resulted in dismissal follow.

1. *Religious views.*—The teacher differed with the community in religious faith.

2. *Political activities.*—Teachers expressed opinions favoring one of the leading political parties or issues of the parties; showed signs of aspirations for holding public office; took interest in local, state, or national political campaigns.

3. *Social and economic attitudes.*—School officials charged radicalism because teachers made public statements concerning social and economic issues. In one instance the general public held that a teacher's dismissal was not caused by the charge of radicalism but by his daring to attack the abuses of corporations and to expose corrupt influences in politics.

4. *Scientific views.*—Cases are numerous in which teachers were dismissed because of the teaching of the theory of evolution.

5. *Race prejudices.*—The teacher attempted to become intelligent concerning the problem of the negroes and treated them with courtesy.

6. *Requests for salary increase.*

7. *Quality and quantity of wearing apparel.*—Teachers who dressed as well as some of the best citizens of the community were refused re-employment for the alleged reason that their manner of dress was superior to that of the community. On the other hand, teachers lost jobs because they could not, with the salaries received, buy expensive clothing.

8. *Other reasons.*—Cases were found in which teachers were dismissed for the following reasons: refusing to make a pledge not to play bridge, marrying on the part of women teachers, failure to do all their trading with home-town merchants, halitosis, giving failing marks to the children of trustees, and the possession of a good job by a teacher's father.

SUMMARY

This study indicates that a teacher's actions in the routine of duty or in an unguarded moment of diversion may be instrumental in causing dismissal. The ultimate possibilities of public interpretation

must be taken into account before the teacher acts or talks. Often the school authorities may see no harm in a teacher's activities but, in order to satisfy the whims of some of the talkative members of the community, will take drastic action. The expense, the inconvenience, and the embarrassment to the teacher are disregarded, and emphasis is placed on the jealousy and envy of a few local citizens who may be feeling the competition of the teacher in the social circle.

In general, the agreement in the attitudes of the groups in this study was very high, whether consideration is given to the percentage of responses in a given category or to the mean scores. Only two of ten correlations between the responses of groups or combinations of groups were below .90. This agreement was not so apparent in the attitudes toward particular reasons for discharge.

The female teachers and administrators tended to mark "Certainly discharge" opposite items that had to do with the personal habits and conduct of the teacher. The male teachers and administrators tended to consider more important items that had to do with the teacher's efficiency and his relation to the community. The female patrons tended to condemn moral lapses most severely. The greatest uniformity of the opinions of the sexes was found in the patron groups and the least within the teacher groups.

From the point of view of the teacher who desires to conform to the expectations of others in matters of conduct, more interest centers in the items that all the groups consider valid reasons for discharging a teacher, namely, the ten reasons which were checked by two-thirds or more of every group as serious enough to warrant discharge.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON GUIDANCE

PERCIVAL W. HUTSON

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WITH the same classification of the literature of guidance employed in previous years, the following references have been chosen as those most helpful to personnel workers in educational institutions. While a partiality to scientific studies is evident in the list, many contributions from subjective literature have been included.

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428. BEANE, DON, and REALS, W. H. "College Recruiting in Illinois," *Educational Record*, XVIII (October, 1937), 482-95.
Reports practices revealed by questionnaires sent to high-school principals, to colleges, and to "star" athletes.
429. BRUNNER, EDMUND DE S. "Vocational Guidance in Village High Schools," *Teachers College Record*, XXXIX (December, 1937), 218-29.
A study showing the growth of activity in vocational guidance between 1924 and 1936.
430. CLARK, FLORENCE E. "Occupational Information in the Small Community," *Occupations*, XVI (November and December, 1937), 117-22, 245-51.
Suggests materials available and how they should be used. Describes how firsthand data may be gathered by pupils.
431. CLARK, HAROLD F., with the assistance of MERVYN CROBAUGH, WILBUR I. GOOCH, BYRNE J. HORTON, and ROSEMARY NORRIS KUTAK. *Life Earnings in Selected Occupations in the United States*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1937. Pp. xx+408.
A report of extended research to determine average earnings in the years 1920-36. The occupational groups studied were those engaged in each of twelve leading professions, in clerical occupations, in several skilled trades, in farming, and in unskilled labor.
432. CRAWFORD, GEORGE W. *The Talladega Manual of Vocational Guidance*. Talladega, Alabama: Talladega College, 1937. Pp. x+146.
Part I expounds a point of view on important issues in the vocational guidance of negroes. Part II describes the vocational opportunities for negroes in

eighteen fields. Part III gives "additional information bearing on choice of vocation," which consists largely of objective data. An excellent bibliography.

433. FLEMING, JOSEPH W. "Predicting Trade School Success," *Pittsburgh Schools*, XI (May-June, 1937), 153-210.

An evaluation of various predictive measures, showing high certainty of success for boys who have intelligence quotients above 95 and records of at least fairly good work in shop and in academic subjects.

434. GOOCH, WILBUR I. "Occupational Adjustment in Rhode Island," *Occupations*, XVI (October, 1937), 41-46.

Describes the organization and the activities of the Rhode Island Institute for Counseling and Personnel Service, an agency for promotion of the occupational adjustment of non-school youth.

435. HAUGEN, MELVIN, and DOUGLASS, HARL R. "The Effect of a Course in Occupations on the Vocational and Educational Plans of Ninth-Grade Children," *School Review*, XLV (October, 1937), 585-91.

Illustrates well the possibilities of influencing the choices of pupils at the ninth-grade level.

436. HERBST, R. L. "Can Success in High School Be Predicted at the End of Grade IX?" *School Review*, XLV (September, 1937), 508-15.

A study of high schools in Delaware (with exception of Wilmington), yielding results from which the need for continuous educational and vocational guidance is inferred.

437. HOLDEN, P. H. "After-School Careers of Negro High School Graduates of Houston, Texas, 1933," *Journal of Negro Education*, VII (January, 1938), 48-54.

Based on 357 cases, this report shows most of the graduates to be located in positions not in accord with their vocational choices and not related to the courses pursued in high school. The boys were receiving a median wage of nine dollars a week; the girls, four dollars.

438. OAKLEY, C. A., and MACRAE, ANGUS. *Handbook of Vocational Guidance—Secondary and Public Schools*. London: University of London Press, 1937. Pp. xviii+338.

Prepared by two well-known British authorities, this manual of reference for vocational-guidance workers is unique for its attempt to show the extent to which various "talents and temperaments" are required for each of a number of occupations.

439. PAVAN, ANN. "A Follow-up Study of Philadelphia Public School Graduates," *Occupations*, XVI (December, 1937), 252-59.

An occupational follow-up of 5,898 Philadelphia high-school and vocational-school graduates of the class of 1935. Reveals a high percentage of employment stability and a high correlation between training received and jobs held.

440. PITTENGER, L. A. (Chairman). "Ethical and Unethical Practices and Procedures in the Recruiting of Students from Secondary Schools by Institutions of Higher Education," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XII (July, 1937), 13-16.
An enumeration of practices deemed ethical and practices deemed unethical by the Executive Committee of the North Central Association.
441. *Population Trends and Their Educational Implications*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVI, No. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1938. Pp. 1-60.
Well-presented factual material showing changes in population growth, age, geographic concentration, and occupational distribution. This content has marked bearing on guidance, as on other educational policies.
442. PUNKE, HAROLD H. "Guidance among Georgia High-School Pupils," *School Review*, XLVI (March, 1938), 202-11.
An investigation illuminating the existing state of guidance and also the personnel from whom pupils acknowledge receiving guidance.
443. SISSON, E. DONALD. "Vocational Choices of College Students," *School and Society*, XLVI (December 11, 1937), 765-68.
Surveys and interprets the vocational choices of students in Wesleyan University.
444. *Technological Trends and National Policy*. Report of the Subcommittee on Technology to the National Resources Committee, June, 1937. Washington: Government Printing Office. Pp. viii+388.
Significant for guidance workers because occupational trends derive from technological development and are referred to at many points in this far-sighted report.
445. TOOPS, HERBERT A. "Improving Selection at the Secondary-School Level," *Current Issues in Higher Education*, pp. 73-91. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, Vol. IX. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937.
A basic discussion of the problem of recruiting students for higher institutions.
446. WALLAR, GENE A. "The Occupational Orientation Inquiry," *School and Society*, XLVI (October 16, 1937), 507-10.
Describes an instrument which is an aid to self-analysis and to counseling.
447. WILLIAMSON, E. G. "Scholastic Motivation and the Choice of a Vocation," *School and Society*, XLVI (September 18, 1937), 353-57.
This careful study of university Freshmen indicates that students who have vocational choices do not evince greater scholastic motivation than do those without vocational choices.

448. WRIGHT, BARBARA H. *When Pupils Leave School*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Division of Instruction, Minneapolis Public Schools, 1937. Pp. 16.
A follow-up study of Minneapolis high-school classes graduated in June, 1936, showing post-school adjustments in relation to scholarship and to high schools from which pupils were graduated.

ADJUSTMENT

449. COWELL, CHARLES C. "A Suggested Index of Social Adjustment in the High School," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XVII (January 19, 1938), 10-19.
Describes an instrument for the use of teachers of physical education in rating "behavior trends" of pupils. Presents statistical treatment.
450. EISENBERG, PHILIP, and LAZARSFELD, PAUL F. "The Psychological Effects of Unemployment," *Psychological Bulletin*, XXXV (June, 1938), 358-90.
A thoughtful analysis and summary of the literature on the psychological effects of unemployment. Bibliography of 112 titles.
451. FEDER, DANIEL D., and MALLETT, DONALD R. "Validity of Certain Measures of Personality Adjustment," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XIII (October, 1937), 5-15.
With university Freshmen as the subjects, it is concluded from this scientific study that three well-known adjustment questionnaires "do not seem to be adequate substitutes for the personal or psychiatric interview" in "the discovery and diagnosis of personality maladjustments."
452. FLORY, CHARLES D., and WEBB, JAMES F. "Cumulative Records for Elementary Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVIII (December, 1937), 278-90.
Describes a comprehensive record folder well calculated to serve as an aid to adjustment.
453. JARVIE, L. L., and JOHNS, A. A. "Does the Bernreuter Personality Inventory Contribute to Counseling?" *Educational Research Bulletin*, XVII (January 19, 1938), 7-9, 28.
A thoughtful statistical study concluding that the "inventory offers little aid in the isolation of personality problems."
454. JOHNSON, WILLIAM H. "Adjustment Service in the Chicago High Schools," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXIII (October, 1937), 513-20.
An "adjustment teacher" in each high school specializes in diagnosing the difficulties of problem pupils and in aiding the faculty to make the adaptations of treatment which seem to be necessary.

455. KIRKENDALL, LESTER A. *Factors Related to the Changes in School Adjustment of High School Pupils*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 705. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. viii+90.
An attempt to test the assumption that changes in school adjustment will result from changes in selected factors in the home environment.
456. SPENCER, DOUGLAS. "The Frankness of Subjects on Personality Measures," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXIX (January, 1938), 26-35.
A report of a carefully planned research, showing that truthfulness of response on personality measures depends a great deal on preservation of the anonymity of the respondent.
457. VAN WATERS, MIRIAM. "Social Responsibility of School and Court," *Educational Record*, XVIII (July, 1937), 368-76.
A thoughtful interpretation of problems of delinquency.
458. WALLENSTEIN, NEHEMIAH. *Character and Personality of Children from Broken Homes*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 721. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. vi+86.
A battery of fourteen personality and character tests was used to measure differences between children from broken and from normal homes. The differences found were not large.
459. WEISS, ANNI B. "Diagnostic Methods in Child Guidance and Psychological Counseling," *Mental Hygiene*, XXI (October, 1937), 579-98.
A presentation of a number of practical techniques.

PUBLICATIONS PERTAINING TO BOTH DISTRIBUTION
AND ADJUSTMENT

460. ALLEN, RICHARD D. "How a Principal Can Direct Guidance," *Occupations*, XVI (October, 1937), 15-20.
A presentation of practical procedure.
461. ALTSTETTER, M. L. "Guidance Service in Two Hundred Secondary Schools," *Occupations*, XVI (March, 1938), 513-20.
A report from the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, presenting the evaluation of guidance service on a total of 210 criterional and 57 evaluative items.
462. BRIGGS, THOMAS H. "Articulation of the High School and College," *School and Society*, XLVII (May 21, 1938), 649-56.
An interpretation of the main problems of articulation and of their bearing on the larger problem of education.

463. CUNLIFFE, REX B., KEMP, JASON W., and METZGER, KARL E. *Guidance Practice in New Jersey—A Sequel to the Report Issued in 1932*. Studies in Education, No. 10. Rutgers University Bulletin, Vol. XIV, No. 2. New Brunswick, New Jersey: School of Education, Rutgers University, 1937. Pp. 60.

A study made for the purpose of discovering the changes in guidance practice that had taken place during the preceding five years. Some increase in the practice of guidance is shown.

464. *Education*, LVII (June, 1937), 585-648.

An entire number devoted to guidance. Some of the more extended articles are the following: "Personnel Work and Guidance in the General College, University of Minnesota," by Malcolm S. MacLean, Cornelia Taylor Williams, and John G. Darley; "Vitalizing the Course in Occupations," by Wilbur I. Gooch; "Effective Home-Room Guidance," by Clarence C. Dunsmoor; "The Responsibility of the School for the Individual's Growth," by Warren K. Layton; "Occupational Ability Patterns," by Arthur F. Dodge; "The Participation of the Counselor in Curriculum Research, the Student Council and the Homeroom," by Howard D. Wood; and "Let's Stop Playing with Guidance," by Richard D. Allen.

465. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. "Pupil Judgment on Value of Guidance Received," *School Review*, XLVI (April, 1938), 265-75.

A project of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. Pupils professed to have received relatively little vocational guidance but somewhat more educational guidance.

466. *From High School to College*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVI, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1938. Pp. 63-122.

Describes the practices of 1,600 high schools and 423 liberal-arts colleges in aiding the student in college selection, entrance, and orientation.

467. *Guidance in Educational Institutions*. Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. Pp. viii+314.

An exposition and interpretation of the guidance function in the light of existing research, best practice, and opinion. The eleven chapters were prepared by twelve authors well known in the field of guidance. By comparison of this yearbook with one on the same topic issued by the same society fourteen years earlier, the development of the guidance concept and of guidance techniques is made singularly clear.

468. HARTMAN, HELEN J. "Pre-college Guidance in Ohio," *School Review*, XLV (November, 1937), 662-71.

A study of practice, revealing inadequate attention to, and understanding of, the problem. The elements of a desirable program are set forth.

469. HILTON, MARTHA EUNICE. "The Functions of the Dean of Women," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (March, 1938), 281-86.
Reports findings from a questionnaire study made to obtain a list of functions performed by deans of women in junior colleges, together with judgments of the relative importance of the functions.
470. KAULFERS, WALTER V. "The Curriculum Maker's Responsibility for Guidance," *Curriculum Journal*, IX (May, 1938), 213-17.
An excellent statement setting forth the dependence of the guidance program on a diversified and flexible curriculum.
471. MARSHALL, J. E. "The St. Paul Program of Guidance," *School Review*, XLVI (May, 1938), 374-80.
Describes a comprehensive program recently inaugurated.
472. PATERSON, DONALD G., SCHNEIDLER, GWENDOLEN G., and WILLIAMSON, EDMUND G. *Student Guidance Techniques*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xviii+316.
For the most part, this book is devoted to excellent, evaluative descriptions—averaging one or two pages each—of the principal tests of scholastic aptitude, academic and vocational achievement, personality, and special aptitude. Chapters of practical suggestions on counseling for educational, vocational, and personal problems are also included.
473. *Proceedings of the Third Annual Guidance Conference Held at Purdue University, November 19 and 20, 1937*. Studies in Higher Education XXXIII. Bulletin of Purdue University, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 2. La Fayette, Indiana: Division of Educational Reference, Purdue University, 1938.
Reproduces addresses delivered at a conference on guidance. The addresses are concerned with many aspects of the whole field.
474. *The Prospect for Youth*. Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. CXCIV. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science, November, 1937. Pp. xii+294.
A collaboration of twenty-three authorities to present the many-sided problem of modern youth. Contributes a broad orientation for the performance of distributive and adjustive guidance.
475. SHOFSTALL, WELDON P. *Individual Student Guidance at Stephens College*. Education Service Series, No. 3. Stephens College Bulletin, Vol. XVIII, No. 5. Columbia, Missouri: Stephens College, 1937. Pp. 72.
An intimate description of a personnel program, including some minor researches.
476. STRANG, RUTH. *Behavior and Background of Students in College and Secondary School*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1937. Pp. xiv+516.
The "second volume in a series of summaries of personnel work in educational institutions." Selects and integrates the principal scientific studies of "adoles-

cent problems, physical characteristics, intelligence, achievement, personality, attitudes, interests, social and economic background, and expenditure of time and money."

477. STRANG, RUTH. *Counseling Technics in College and Secondary School*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1937. Pp. x+160.

The "third volume in a series of summaries of personnel work in educational institutions." Reports a canvass of the literature on personnel records, the case study, the interview, the rating scale, methods of observation, and other techniques in diagnosis and counseling.

478. SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M. "Securing Rapport in Interviewing," *Teachers College Record*, XXXIX (May, 1938), 707-22.

An analytical treatment, using many examples, to illuminate good and bad techniques of interviewing.

479. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. (Editor). *The Public School Demonstration Project in Educational Guidance*. Educational Records Bulletin No. 21. New York: Educational Records Bureau (437 West Fifty-ninth Street), 1937. Pp. x+174.

A report of progress on the demonstration, in seven selected school systems, of the values of cumulative records and an extensive testing program.

480. WITMER, MARION H., and PROFFITT, MARIS M. (Compilers). *Guidance Bibliography: 1935 and 1936*. United States Office of Education Bulletins No. 36 (pp. vi+66) and No. 37 (pp. vi+72), 1937.

The first and second of annual bibliographies.

481. *Youth Education Today*. Sixteenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association, 1938. Pp. 510.

A comprehensive discussion of the problems of youth education, both in and out of school. Chapters iv, vii, and viii bear with special helpfulness on adjustive and distributive guidance, presenting both problems and techniques of guidance.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

SURVEY COURSES, AN INTERPRETATION AND EVALUATION.—Education at the college level, particularly in what have traditionally been known as the Freshman and the Sophomore years, has undergone such rapid changes that it has been impossible for administrative officers and faculty members to keep informed concerning new developments. *What about Survey Courses?*¹ is, without question, the most comprehensive treatment that has yet been published of the trends in the introduction of survey courses, of the theory underlying these courses, of the problems encountered in organizing and teaching them, and of the nature and the content of the courses. The organization of the volume leads logically from a consideration of the more general aspects and problems related to the development of survey courses into a consideration of the curriculums designed for general education in a number of specific institutions and then into a more detailed analysis of the organization and content of courses in specific fields, for example, the natural sciences, the social studies, and the humanities. Consideration is given in the last two divisions of the volume to composite survey courses and to measurement and evaluation.

The reader of this volume completes it with the feeling that he has had an informal discussion with each contributor concerning the purpose, the nature, and the problems of the survey courses in the institution which the author represents. Most of the questions commonly asked by those of us interested in the approach that is being made to general education through the survey courses are answered clearly and as fully as possible within the limits of available data.

The reviewer was particularly impressed (1) with the general agreement among the various contributors as to the broad ends to be achieved by these courses; (2) by the wide diversity in the nature and the scope of the courses being offered; (3) by the lack of adequate objective evaluations of the courses; and (4) by the advantages gained through survey courses, as shown by the few objective evaluations that are reported.

If one were to be critical in an evaluation of the volume as a whole, one might point out (1) that it represents an extensive sampling of programs both by institutions and by courses described but that it is not an exhaustive treatment of the subject; (2) that some institutions which have contributed largely to the devel-

¹ *What about Survey Courses?* Edited by B. Lamar Johnson. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1937. Pp. xii+388. \$2.85.

opment of survey courses are scarcely given sufficient recognition; and (3) that the contributors, on the whole, are persons who have had much to do with the introduction and the organization of survey courses in the institutions which they represent and are, therefore, not wholly unbiased in their descriptions and interpretations.

The reviewer hastens to add, however, that the merits of the volume so far outweigh these limitations that he unhesitatingly commends the book to all those who have an interest in being fully informed about developments and practices in the field of general education, particularly from the angle of survey courses.

A. J. BRUMBAUGH

University of Chicago

METHODS FOR THE NOVICE TEACHER.—Readers of educational publications have come to expect certain trade-marks of the profession to appear. The style of such books will usually be somewhat conservative. The vocabulary will contain at least the more common technical and scientific terms or expressions used by the profession. References to the findings of scientific studies and quotations from other authors will appear in the pages, all of which will be properly documented in footnotes. Frequently an appendix will contain bibliographies or other important additions to the content. Usually the preface will acknowledge assistance received from other persons in compiling materials and preparing the manuscript.

An unusual publication¹ in the field of methods of teaching in secondary schools abandons practically all the conventional characteristics of educational publications. It is written in a breezy style which is much more reminiscent of the language of the campus than of the classroom. As the author says in his Preface, "I haven't made very much effort to use a dignified and conservative literary style because I have been writing to the collegiate crowd instead of to the professors" (p. 12). Undoubtedly this aim has been attained.

The content of this volume is almost entirely empirical. The materials could have been compiled easily by a superior teacher or an administrator of broad experience and maturity who had a knowledge of psychology and of methods equivalent to the content found in undergraduate courses in these fields. The reviewer noted only two references to scientific studies, in both of which the author participated, and only one is documented. The chapters are filled with illustrations drawn from knowledge of actual teaching conditions, some of which approach the bizarre, and with apt colloquial expressions and collegiate educational slang. The general result is a presentation in a somewhat dogmatic, authoritarian manner and yet in a dynamic and popular style which will have

¹ Claude C. Crawford, *How To Teach: A Text for Upper Grade and Secondary Teachers*. Los Angeles, California: Southern California School Book Depository, 1938. Pp. 512. \$2.50.

a great appeal to a large proportion of the undergraduate student body as well as to many teachers in service.

Even in its organization this volume has unusual features. The first chapter deals with the problems of getting a position. Chapters ii-v are concerned with classroom administration and control. The next four chapters are devoted to study habits, planning lessons, and making assignments. Chapters x-xxiv discuss types of teaching, such as the problem method, socialization, the project, and individualization. One of the best chapters in this section is chapter xiii, which discusses the problems of academic freedom. Chapters xxv and xxvi are concerned with tests and measurement and the final chapter with professional advancement. At the close of each chapter there is a bibliography composed of well-selected, recent textbooks in methods. Almost no references to periodical literature are included, and no references to studies or scientific materials were noted.

The purpose of this volume seems to be to present a popular and an entertaining elementary textbook on methods of teaching. If this statement accurately describes the intent, the author has succeeded. Although the author seems informed on modern research relating to this field, the almost complete omission of reference to scientific studies tends to give a somewhat dogmatic atmosphere to the materials presented and to neglect the values for the education of teachers which can accrue from knowledge of the scientific movement in education and from some familiarity with research studies. Teachers or institutions which have faith in the scientific movement in education will find many difficulties in the use of this volume.

CHARLES W. BOARDMAN

University of Minnesota

THEORY AND DEVICES FOR PROGRESSIVE TEACHERS.—Now that the progressive movement has come of age, it is being challenged to live up to the responsibilities of maturity. Sentimental appeals in behalf of childhood, individuality, and democracy have their place in winning a clientele who think with their emotions, but such appeals are meaningless to intelligent observers who already admit the crucial importance of these concepts in any plan of education designed for the American people. The educative process should be inspiring, but, more important, it should be intelligible. Happily, the trend is in the direction of fundamental analysis. Critics within and without the ranks of the progressives, although not denying that "the progressive movement has contributed much of great and lasting value to American education," are lifting up their voices in expressions of protest and dissent, calling attention to the movement's "various aberrations and errors" (Boyd H. Bode, *Progressive Education at the Crossroads*, p. 3. New York: Newson & Co., 1938).

A book¹ has recently been written by Charles Sumner Crow for use as a

¹ Charles Sumner Crow, *Creative Education: Some Relations of Education and Civilization*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. Pp. xxvi+456. \$3.00.

general textbook in courses on the "new" education. "It is designed for courses with such titles as creative education, the child-centered school, principles of education applied, project procedure, and progressive education" (p. ix). It is organized in four parts: Part I, "Creativeness in Life and in Education"; Part II, "Cycles of Experience in Creative Learning"; Part III, "Problems of Creative Teaching"; Part IV, "Creative Education and Western Civilization."

One can catch the flavor of the discussion from a passage like the following:

Second, creative activity seems marvelously simple, perhaps because it is a property of all life, but a property which manifests itself only under the most favorable conditions. One is astonished at the apparent ease and simplicity of creative activity, once it is initiated, and at the uniqueness of the objective result. The whole process seems to be inevitable and at the same time indeterminate, like the flowering and fruition of one of Burbank's new creations in plant life. In human experience it develops an atmosphere, a tempo, an inherent energy and vitality which transmutes the common into the unique, which breaks through the trite, the usual, the customary, and generates that which is creative (p. 6).

Even Watson would have been put to it to help Sherlock Holmes unravel the mysteries of such a paragraph.

The book obviously belongs in the general class of inspirational appeals. One may say (as the author does), with Browning, that "here is the finger of God, a flash of the will that can," but such evidence in support of creativity in human experience has all the fallibility of a poet's dream. The true source of the idea of creative education is in the epistemology of instrumentalism. According to this theory of knowledge, the fundamental reality is an ineffable stream of activity which flowers out in the ideas that constitute the subject matter of mental life and the objects that constitute what is commonly known as the environment. That which is regarded by most persons as an independently existing external world is nothing more to the instrumentalist than an elaborate product of intellectual action in the stream of experience. Otherwise stated, in the amorphous stream of activity, concepts are manufactured, the forms of mental life are fabricated. The fabrication is said to be a consequence of intellection, but it seems rather to be a figment of the pragmatist's imagination. The doctrine that the world is our oyster is only a partial truth. For most persons this notion of creativity has only to be explained in order to be repudiated. There is tremendous need for fundamental discussions of this problem and other problems that arise in connection with the ambition of pragmatic philosophers to assume control of our educational and political institutions.

Crow's book provides a fair cross-section of current literature on progressive education, a fair sample of the thought and practice of its devotees.

FREDERICK S. BREED

University of Chicago

COMPARING THE SMALL AND THE LARGE SIX-YEAR RURAL HIGH SCHOOL.—During the past few years several educational leaders have been energetically pointing out the many advantages inherent in the small school. They have been equally industrious in discovering means—techniques and procedures—for overcoming the disadvantages and the weaknesses of these schools. Many of these weaknesses have given way before programs of sympathetic research. Because Riddle's study¹ was carried out in 1931, the author did not have access to the numerous constructive contributions that have appeared in the small-school field during the past several years. In spite of this fact, he is to be congratulated, for he is among the few researchers to compare the pupils, in addition to comparing the practices, the equipment, etc., of the schools. Although the comparisons of pupils are limited to a few factors, they are sufficient to indicate a direction that researchers in the small-school field would do well to follow.

Invariably, studies comparing small- and large-school units have stopped short of an evaluation of the school product—the pupil. As in other researches of this type, Riddle found that, with respect to desirable practices and material improvements, the large units show decided superiority over the small units: (1) The staff is superior in age, preparation, experience, tenure, program of work, and salary received. (2) The buildings are superior with respect to type of construction, estimated value, hygienic facilities, and adaptability to a modern educational program. (3) The equipment is superior with respect to library, science laboratory, occupational shops, and instructional materials. (4) The curriculum is superior with respect to the range of special and extra-curriculum opportunities available to all pupils. (5) The total expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance are lower.

Since the small school has been consistently shown to be inferior with respect to staff, buildings, equipment, curriculum, and per pupil expenditure, it would appear (and has been too frequently accepted) that the achievements and advancements of the pupils of the small schools would also show decided inferiority. However, Riddle's conclusions in this regard are not unfavorable to the small school.

1. The pupil personnel of the two groups shows no significant difference as to average age, native intelligence of pupils completing the junior high school, parental occupation, and home environment of pupils. There is, however, a significant difference in average native intelligence of twelfth-grade pupils in favor of the large-school group.

2. The achievements of ninth-grade pupils in English, algebra, and Latin are practically the same in both types of schools.

3. The achievements of twelfth-grade pupils in American history and physics

¹ John Ingle Riddle, *The Six-Year Rural High School: A Comparative Study of Small and Large Units in Alabama*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 737. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. vi+102. \$1.60.

are practically the same for the two groups, while in English the achievement in the large-school group is significantly higher than that in the small-school group. Riddle states, "... the increase in the average English score of the large-school group over that of the small-school group is approximately the same as the increase in the average I.Q. of the one over the other" (p. 75). Regarding the equal achievements in American history, Riddle says, "... and this in spite of the fact there is a significant difference in their average intelligence levels" (p. 76).

4. The progress of pupils through the schools, as indicated by percentage of average daily attendance, age-grade placement, elimination, and percentage of graduation, is practically the same for both.

5. The percentage of graduates entering college and the college success of Freshmen is slightly in favor of the large-school group.

As a result of recent studies and publications, scores of small-school administrators are dropping their fatalistic attitude toward the helplessness of their schools and are assuming a dynamic courage, which is leading to the establishment of modern and decidedly improved small schools. Riddle's study, although showing the tremendous handicaps of the small school, goes far enough to point out that this school is reaching certain of its educational objectives as well as large schools. Here again there is much hope for the small school.

EARL T. PLATT

University of Nebraska

AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF THE READING OF ADULTS.—This monograph¹ is a study of the reading ability of 1,020 adults. Of that number, 982 took part in the experiment as regular subjects, and the remaining number, students in business administration, took part as a control group. The general information recorded concerning these persons had to do with the number of years of school attendance, the number of years since they left school, and the amount and the character of their present voluntary reading. Other information was collected by means of an intelligence test; a reading test especially constructed for this experiment; and the eye-movement technique, which included a record of the voice in oral reading and an oscillograph record. The subjects were also tested with respect to their vision. Twelve visual tests were recorded. Other parts of the study are devoted to the problem of vocalization in silent reading and to remedial work.

The subjects were divided into groups on the basis of the last school grade attended, the number of years that they had been out of school, and chronological age. These different groups were studied with respect to the various types of data collected.

¹ Guy Thomas Buswell, *How Adults Read*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 45. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1937. Pp. xiv + 158. \$1.50.

The eye-movements were studied in the usual way. It may be of interest to note that the Chicago apparatus has been recently rebuilt so that it now includes an oscillograph and a voice-recording device. These improvements, with others, make this apparatus one of the most complete pieces of equipment that has been built up to the present time.

The chapter on eye-movements gives tables showing, for both oral and silent reading, the number of fixations, the number of regressive movements, and the duration of fixation pauses. These data are brought to bear on the different groups mentioned above. Other chapters are devoted to eye-voice results, to visual tests, to remedial measures, and to tests for vocalization.

Only three of the important conclusions will be mentioned. First, when the median scores on the reading tests were listed according to the number of years of school attendance, the range from the lowest to the highest median was forty points, nineteen of which made up the difference between the median for those who had not gone beyond Grade VI and the median for those who had gone as far as Grade VII or VIII. Second, adults, who have had much wider experience than school pupils, are able to read with an understanding much beyond that of sixth-grade children, or even of high-school Seniors; but, on material within the range of both children and adults, many adults read by a more immature process than school children. Adults so equipped do their reading at an expense of a great deal of effort or of time, or probably of both. Third, there is nothing to indicate a consistent decrease in amount of voluntary reading with a decrease in reading ability as measured by the Betts test.

The author emphasizes further that much of the reading of adults seems to be below the degree of efficiency assumed by workers concerned with adult education. There is, then, an important problem in adjusting properly the material to be read in adult courses to the ability of those participating in such courses. In connection with this problem it is encouraging to note that the remedial work done by the author with adult readers brought positive results.

By way of estimate, the monograph is certainly one that persons responsible for courses in adult education will want to study carefully.

C. T. GRAY

University of Texas

MATHEMATICS APPLIED TO LIVING.—One important hindrance to the development of a functional curriculum in the high school has been the lack of instructional materials. Gradually these materials are being supplied. The book under review¹ offers a case in point. Although its title indicates that it is a textbook for a course in mathematics, it is actually organized around certain activities of everyday life which have been found to require some mastery of mathematics. The twelve units are entitled: "Principles of Per Cent (Fundamental Tool of

¹ Anne Louise Cowan, *Consumer Mathematics: A Guidance Course in Commercial Relations*. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Stackpole Sons, 1938. Pp. xiv+324. \$1.64.

Business)," "Intelligent Buying," "Instalment Buying" [Are these two topics antithetical?] "Personal Management," "Savings and Insurance," "Banking," "Investments," "Taxes," "Communication," "Transportation," "Travel," "Reading of Business (Graphs)."

Each topic is approached by means of a general discussion and a presentation of much informational material. In addition, there is much discursive material scattered through the units. In some cases the mathematical aspects are all but submerged. Each unit contains a list of "Review Study Questions," some of which are answered in the book and some of which will require further investigation by the class. Each chapter provides optional assignments, sections on "Word Study," and "Unit Mastery Tests." The tests include both objective and essay-type items. In addition, there is in each chapter a section devoted to practice on fundamentals.

A few weaknesses should be pointed out. More space might have been devoted to reading road maps, planning motor trips, and computing the costs of motoring. References might well have been given for the further study of topics when interest or time warranted it. At some points the book places too much emphasis on the contemporary, as in its discussion of streamline trains, the social-security system, and in the implied finality of the current income-tax rates. The table of parcel-post rates is obsolete. In the unit on instalment purchasing no problems are given involving instalment purchases from mail-order houses, which in some cases make a service charge amounting to interest at the rate of 50 or 60 per cent. Most of the material seems to be better adapted to junior high school groups than to those in the upper years of the secondary school. Some teachers will want at least twice as much problem material.

Several topics not usually taken up in such a course are treated in this book, among which are credit unions (which gets six pages), personal-finance companies, radiograms, motor-truck freight, and tipping. A genuine effort is made to develop some sales resistance and to teach pupils to read advertising critically.

This book will delight the exponents of integrated subject matter and distress teachers who can think of the high-school subjects only as they fit into the customary "departments." It includes material which is taught in courses in mathematics, home economics, civics, economics, and what is sometimes called "junior business practice." In some schools possibilities of overlapping and duplication will need to be considered. Somewhere, sometime, every pupil should learn practically everything that this book includes, and Miss Cowan's textbook is a good one with which to learn it.

H. E. BENZ

Ohio University, Athens, Ohio

A PROGRAM OF HEALTH CONSERVATION AND PLAY FOR THE SMALL SCHOOL.— Leaders in the field of physical education have long recognized the special needs of city children, and many of the thickly populated centers have made elaborate

provisions to meet these needs. Expensive gymnasiums, swimming pools, and playfields utilized under the direction of trained teachers insure opportunities for recreation and play to many of these children. Although it was once generally assumed that the health conditions prevailing in villages and rural areas were superior to those of the city, recent studies have disproved this assumption and have revealed serious health and recreational problems among rural children. Since these children generally reside in the open country or in small villages and attend small schools of limited facilities and enrolments, special procedures and techniques are necessary if their needs are to be met. Teachers and administrators serving in small schools will welcome the helpful treatment of the problem recently prepared by Lois Pedersen Broady.¹

The author recognizes that the physical education offered in most small schools is directed by teachers who have received the major part of their training in academic fields and who therefore have but little knowledge of physical education. For this reason the treatment presented is simple and nontechnical throughout. The book consists of nine chapters. The chapters dealing with the health program, physical education for girls, and the intramural program appear to be particularly helpful. The book does not pretend to set up a new type of program for health and physical education. Neither does it propose new standards of achievement, but it clearly recognizes the peculiar problems of the small school. The material presented and the manner of presenting it will contribute directly to the solution of these problems. Although there is a distinct tendency toward the enlargement of school units throughout the country, small schools are still with us in large numbers and there is no reason to anticipate that they will be eliminated abruptly. Consequently it is imperative that the obviously vital problems of health and recreation which are peculiar to the small school be given special attention. The author of this book evidently writes from a background of thorough training and broad experience. The result is a volume that is both sane and practical.

JOHN RUFF

University of Missouri

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

Art Education Today: An Annual Devoted to the Problems of Art Education.

Sponsored by Members of the Fine Arts Staff of Teachers College. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 134. \$1.25

¹ Lois Pedersen Broady, *Health and Physical Education for Small Schools*. Lincoln, Nebraska: Teachers College and the University Extension Division, University of Nebraska, 1937. Pp. xii+192.

- BELL, HOWARD M. *Youth Tell Their Story*. A Study of the Conditions and Attitudes of Young People in Maryland between the Ages of 16 and 24. Conducted for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938. Pp. 274. \$1.50.
- BLAIR, HERBERT. *Physical Educational Facilities for the Modern Junior and Senior High School*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1938. Pp. xii+174. \$2.50.
- BRIGGS, THOMAS H. *Improving Instruction: Supervision by Principals of Secondary Schools*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. x+588. \$2.50.
- COULBOURN, JOHN. *Selection of Teachers in Large City School Systems*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 740. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. x+178. \$1.85.
- DAVIS, JOHN EISELE. *Play and Mental Health: Principles and Practice for Teachers*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1938. Pp. xvi+202. \$2.50.
- DEARBORN, WALTER F., ROTHNEY, JOHN W. M., and SHUTTLEWORTH, FRANK K. *Data on the Growth of Public School Children (From the Materials of the Harvard Growth Study)*. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. III, No. 1 (Serial No. 14). Washington: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1938. Pp. 136.
- FREDERICK, ROBERT W., RAGSDALE, CLARENCE E., and SALISBURY, RACHEL. *Directing Learning*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xvi+528. \$2.75.
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- HUSSEY, MARGUERITE M. *Teaching for Health*. New York: New York University Bookstore (18 Washington Place), 1938. Pp. xiv+312. \$2.75.
- JONES, ARTHUR J. *The Education of Youth for Leadership*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xx+246. \$2.00.
- KREY, A. C. *A Regional Program for the Social Studies*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. xiv+140. \$1.25.
- MORT, PAUL R., and CORNELL, FRANCIS G. *Adaptability of Public School Systems*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. xii+146. \$2.10.

- O'CONNOR, ZENA C. *The Runaway Boy in the Correctional School*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 742. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. viii+78. \$1.60.
- PATTY, WILLIAM L. *A Study of Mechanism in Education: An Examination of the Curriculum-making Devices of Franklin Bobbitt, W. W. Charters, and C. C. Peters from the Point of View of Relativistic Pragmatism*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 739. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. vi+184. \$1.85.
- ROSENBLATT, LOUISE M., for the COMMISSION ON HUMAN RELATIONS. *Literature as Exploration*. A Publication of the Progressive Education Association. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xiv+340. \$2.25.
- RYAN, W. CARSON. *Mental Health through Education*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1938. Pp. viii+316. \$1.50.
- SANFORD, CHESTER M. *Developing Teacher Personality That Wins*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1938. Pp. 160. \$1.60.
- SEARS, JESSE B. *City School Administrative Controls: An Analysis of the Nature, Placement and Flow of Authority and Responsibility in the Management of a City School System*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xviii+282. \$2.50.
- SHEATS, PAUL H. *Education and the Quest for a Middle Way*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. x+190. \$1.25.
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- STRATEMEYER, CLARA. *Supervision in German Elementary Education, 1918-1933*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 734. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. vi+172. \$1.85.
- THOMAS, CHARLES SWAIN, and PAINE, MYRA ADELINE. *Thought and Expression, Book II: A Textbook Designed To Develop Better Habits of Thinking and Greater Skill in English Expression*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1938. Pp. viii+704. \$1.72.
- VARTY, JONATHAN W. *Manuscript Writing and Spelling Achievement: With Special Reference to the Second and Third Grades*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 749. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 64. \$1.60.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- Aida: The Story of Verdi's Greatest Opera*. Adapted by Robert Lawrence. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. Pp. 42. \$0.60.
- ALLEN, PHILIP SCHUYLER, and DAVIS, DOROTHEA VON HARJES. *Language, Literature, and Life: German Book One*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1938. Pp. 432. \$1.76.

- ATWOOD, WALLACE W., and THOMAS, HELEN GOSS. *The Earth and Its People: Book II, The Americas*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1938 (revised). Pp. viii+324. \$1.40.
- BALL, GEORGE H., MEYLAN, EDWARD F., and BALL, CLARICE M. *Introduction to French Grammar*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938. Pp. xiv+430. \$1.90.
- BALLWEBBER, EDITH. *Group Instruction in Social Dancing*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1938. Pp. x+132. \$2.50.
- BARRETT, E. R., RYAN, TERESA M., and SCHRAMMEL, H. E. Barrett-Ryan-Schrammel English Test. New York: World Book Co., 1938.
- BARRY, LINDA E., MADDEN, MABLE, and PRATT, MARJORIE. *Targets in Reading: For High-School Students*. St. Louis, Missouri: Webster Publishing Co., 1938. Pp. 158. \$0.42.
- BECKER, CARL L., and DUNCALF, FREDERIC. *Story of Civilization*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. Pp. xvi+864+xx. \$2.40.
- BERRY, LILLIAN GAY, and LEE, JOSEPHINE L. *Latin—Second Year*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938 (revised). Pp. xvi+434+92. \$1.80.
- BOGARDUS, EMORY S., and LEWIS, ROBERT H. *Social Life and Personality*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. Pp. x+582. \$1.80.
- BOYER, PHILIP A., CHEYNEY, W. WALKER, and WHITE, HOLMAN. *The Progress Arithmetics*, Book F. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. 186. \$0.48.
- BRUCE, GEORGE HOWARD. *High School Chemistry*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1938 (revised). Pp. x+550. \$1.68.
- CLARK, JOHN A., GORTON, FREDERICK RUSSELL, and SEARS, FRANCIS W. *Physics of Today*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938. Pp. vi+632+x. \$1.80.
- CLARK, JOHN R., and SMITH, ROLLAND R., in co-operation with RALEIGH SCHORLING. *Modern-School Geometry*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1938. Pp. xiv+450. \$1.36.
- Contes populaires*. Edited by Edmond A. Méras and André Célières. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938. Pp. viii+226. \$1.12.
- DAVENPORT, EUGENE, and NOLAN, ARETAS. *Agricultural Arts: Some Things Every One Should Know About Farming*. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Press, 1938. Pp. x+308. \$1.75.
- EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. *Educational Temperatures*. Washington: Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards (744 Jackson Place), 1938. Pp. 24. \$0.60.
- FLETCHER, GUSTAV L. *Earth Science: A Physiography*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. vi+568. \$2.20.
- FRICK, NORMAN K. *Vocabulary Power Tests*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1938.
- GATES, ARTHUR I., and STRANG, RUTH. *Gates-Strang Health Knowledge Tests*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. \$0.15.

- HALL, CHARLES GILBERT. *The Mail Comes Through*, pp. 136, \$1.32; *Skyways*, pp. 142, \$1.32. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938.
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